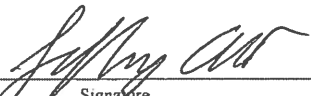




Gephen R. Sadove

**Structurally bound S<sup>2+</sup>, S<sup>3+</sup>, S<sup>4+</sup>, S<sup>6+</sup> in apatite: The redox evolution of ore fluids at the Philips Mine ore deposit, New York, USA**

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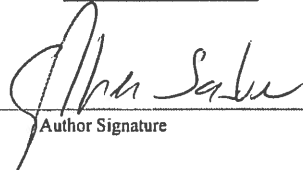
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	Jeffrey Alt	4/6/18
	Name	Date
 Signature	Adam Simon	4/9/18
	Name	Date
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# Structurally bound S<sup>2-</sup>, S<sup>1-</sup>, S<sup>4+</sup>, S<sup>6+</sup> in apatite: The redox evolution of ore fluids at the Phillips Mine ore deposit, New York, USA

Gephen Sadove<sup>1</sup>, Brian Konecke<sup>1</sup>, Adrian Fiege<sup>2\*</sup>, Adam Simon<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Department of Earth and Environmental Sciences, University of Michigan, 1100 North University Ave Ann Arbor, MI 48109-1005, USA.

<sup>2</sup> Department of Earth and Planetary Sciences, American Museum of Natural History, Central Park West at 79<sup>th</sup> Street, New York, NY 10024-5192

*\*corresponding author*

## Abstract

The oxidation state of S plays a critical role in the formation of igneous and magmatic-hydrothermal ore deposits so constraining the oxidation state of S in these systems can be a valuable tool for understanding mineralizing processes. Apatite, commonly Ca<sub>10</sub>[PO<sub>4</sub>]<sub>6</sub>[F,Cl, OH]<sub>2</sub>, is a prevalent accessory mineral in igneous and magmatic-hydrothermal ore-forming systems, and can incorporate redox sensitive elements such as Fe, Mn, and S. Recent experimental studies demonstrate that the behavior of S (e.g., oxidation states of S, S content) in apatite is sensitive to oxygen fugacity. However, there is an overall lack of data with respect to the redox behavior of S in magmatic-hydrothermal systems.

In this study, we used micro X-ray absorption near edge structure ( $\mu$ -XANES) spectroscopy at the S *K*-edge to measure the oxidation states of S in natural apatite from the Phillips Mine magnetite-sulfide mineral deposit in Putnam County, New York. Here, the data are used to test whether the oxidation state of S in apatite from natural systems

can be used to assess possible fluctuations of oxygen fugacity during primary growth of apatite, and subsequent secondary alteration.

Micro-XANES transects were collected within two apatite grains, starting near the edge of (1) a pyrrhotite inclusion, and (2) an inclusion assemblage consisting of pyrite, ferroan carbonate, pyroxene, and magnetite. Transects were conducted moving away from the inclusions and into the apatite host. Electron probe micro-analysis (EPMA) transects were performed parallel to the  $\mu$ -XANES transects to correlate changes in the oxidation state of S in apatite with changes in the S concentration of apatite. The XANES analyses reveal that apatite contains variable proportions of  $S^{6+}$ ,  $S^{4+}$ ,  $S^{1-}$  and  $S^{2-}$ , with corresponding peak absorption energies of  $2481.8 \pm 0.3$  eV,  $2477.9 \pm 0.4$  eV,  $2471.8 \pm 0.1$  eV, and  $2469.8 \pm 0.04$  eV, respectively. Peak areas determined for the different oxidation states of S in apatite demonstrate systematic variations in  $S^{6+}/\Sigma S$ , where elevated  $S^{6+}/\Sigma S$  ratios typically coincide with higher concentrations of S and rare earth elements (REEs) in apatite. The observation of multiple oxidation states of S, and the presence of monazite inclusions that record secondary, fluid-mediated dissolution-reprecipitation of apatite, indicate differences in S and oxygen fugacity during primary mineralization and secondary metasomatism. We propose that the apatite grains crystallized from hydrothermal conditions where reduced S, i.e., sulfide (or  $H_2S$  in the fluid;  $HS^-$ ;  $S^{2-}$ ), was the dominant stable S species. Subsequently, metasomatism of apatite in the presence of an oxidized fluid; e.g., elevated  $SO_2/H_2S$ , resulted in the exsolution and growth of monazite, and the incorporation of oxidized S ( $S^{6+}$  and  $S^{4+}$ ) in apatite. This study demonstrates that the oxidation states of S in apatite can provide

valuable geochemical information regarding the redox evolution of magmatic-hydrothermal systems.

**Keywords: Apatite; Sulfur oxidation states; Sulfur micro-XANES; Oxygen fugacity; Rare earth elements; Hydrothermal ore deposits**

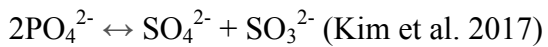
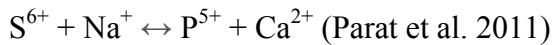
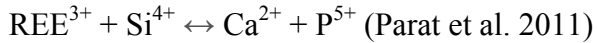
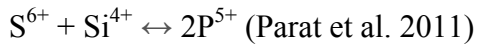
## 1. Introduction

Sulfur is a polyvalent element ( $S^{2-}$ ,  $S^{6+}$ ,  $S^{4+}$ ,  $S^{1-}$  and  $S^2$ ) that occurs in terrestrial, and extraterrestrial geological systems (Carroll and Rutherford, 1988; Nilsson and Peach, 1993; Wallace and Carmichael, 1994; Carroll and Webster, 1994; Nagashima and Katsura 1973; Katsura and Nagashima, 1974; Paris et al. 2001; Jugo et al. 2010). The oxidation state of S is the key variable that controls the solubility of S in silicate melts and hydrothermal fluids, and the partitioning of S between minerals, melts, and fluids (e.g., Keppler, 1999; Jugo et al. 2009; Simon and Ripley, 2011; Zajacz et al. 2012; Fiege et al. 2015). In magmatic and hydrothermal environments, S plays a critical role in the formation of several different ore deposit types, including porphyry, iron oxide - copper - gold, volcanogenic massive sulfide, and magmatic sulfide deposits (Wood et al. 1987; Barnes and Lightfoot, 2005; Mungall et al. 2005; Williams-Jones and Heinrich, 2005; Simon and Ripley, 2011). The oxidation state of S imparts a major control on the mobility, transport and enrichment of metals (e.g., Au, PGE's), that ultimately give rise to economic mineral deposits (Simon and Ripley, 2011). For example, reduced S (i.e.,  $S^{2-}$ ,  $S_3^-$ ) efficiently complexes with, and transports gold in aqueous fluid, whereas oxidized S (i.e.,  $S^{4+}$ ,  $S^{6+}$ ) is an inefficient complexing ligand for gold (Zajacz et al. 2012; Pokrovski and Dubrovinsky, 2011; Pokrovski and Dubessy, 2015; Fontboté et al. 2017). These redox dependent systems, and characteristics of S, triggered many studies to identify ways to determine S activity, and explain

the effect of oxidation state on the ore forming potential in geologic systems (e.g., Toulmin and Barton, 1964; Crerar et al. 1978; Wood and Samson, 1998; Mengason et al. 2010).

One method to investigate terrestrial and extraterrestrial geologic systems is by analyzing apatite -  $[\text{Ca}_{10}(\text{PO}_4)_6(\text{F},\text{Cl},\text{OH})_2]$ . Apatite is the focus of numerous studies owing to its ability to structurally incorporate S and record S activity in magmatic and hydrothermal systems (e.g., Streck and Dilles, 1998; Parat et al. 2002, 2011; Piccoli and Candela, 2002; Hughes and Rakovan, 2002). Apatite can incorporate S as a trace element, preferably in the sulfate state, when replacing  $\text{PO}_4^{3-}$  in the minerals structure (Parat et al. 2011; Konecke et al., 2017a; Kim et al., 2017). Investigating the oxidation state of sulfur in apatite, in combination with volatile and trace element contents (here mainly F, Cl, Ce, S), yields unique information about the behavior of S and the processes that drive its enrichment or depletion. Previous findings show that apatite is capable of incorporating higher concentrations of S under relatively oxidizing conditions, e.g., where reduced S is the dominant oxidation state of S in the system (e.g., Rouse and Dunn, 1982; Liu and Comodi, 1993; Tepper and Kuehner, 1999; Parat et al. 2011; Konecke et al. 2017a). This led to the hypothesis that the concentration of S in apatite could be used to deduce changes in oxidation state during the evolution of a particular system (e.g., Lyons, 1988; Peng et al. 1997; Piccoli and Candela, 2002; Parat et al. 2004, 2011; Webster and Piccoli, 2015; Mao et al. 2016). Streck and Dilles (1998) report that the concentration of S in apatite from the Yerington batholith, Nevada, decreases from ~0.4 S wt % in the core to <0.08 S wt% in the rim. The systematic decrease of S during growth of apatite, was interpreted as a temporal record of the evolution of the magma wherein crystallization of anhydrite causes a decrease in the concentration of S in the silicate melt, which is reflected in the core-to-rim zonation of S in apatite. Streck and Dilles (1998) and other studies (e.g., Parat et al. 2011) were not able to state definitively that the S in apatite was oxidized

S, but suggested sulfate as the only relevant S species in apatite. Those authors, and other studies, relied on compositional variations to assess the incorporation mechanisms of S and other trace elements into the apatite structure:



Recently, Konecke et al. (2017a) demonstrated that there is a systematic relationship between the integrated peak area ratios of each oxidation state of S in apatite (e.g.,  $\text{S}^{6+}/(\text{S}^{6+} + \text{S}^{4+} + \text{S}^{2-} + \text{S}^{1-})$ ; hereafter reported as  $\text{S}^{6+}/\sum\text{S}$ ), and the oxidation state of the magmatic system. Those authors used X-ray absorption near-edge structure (XANES) spectroscopy at the S K-edge to measure in situ the oxidation states of S in apatite grains that were grown experimentally at different oxygen fugacities ( $f_{\text{O}_2}$ ). Konecke et al. (2017a; 2017b) report sulfate and sulfite as the only oxidation states of S in apatite in oxidizing to intermediate environments ( $(f_{\text{O}_2}) = \text{FMQ} + 1.2$  and  $+3$ ; FMQ = fayalite-magnetite-quartz solid buffer), whereas sulfide dominates over sulfate at reduced conditions of  $\leq \text{FMQ}$ . Ab-initio quantum mechanical calculations by Kim et al. (2017) confirm that apatite can incorporate  $\text{S}^{2-}$ ,  $\text{S}^{4+}$  and  $\text{S}^{6+}$  via several possible coupled substitutions. The results of Konecke et al. (2017a; 2017b) and Kim et al. (2017) offer the potential to measure, and use, the oxidation state of S in apatite to examine the evolution of redox conditions of natural systems.

In this study, we used XANES to assess directly the oxidation states of S in apatite grains from the Phillips Mine magnetite-sulfide mineral deposit in Putnam County, New York, U.S.A. The XANES data are combined with electron probe micro-analysis (EPMA), cathodoluminescence (CL) imaging, back-scattered electron (BSE) imaging, and wavelength dispersive spectroscopy (WDS) element mapping to examine the chemistry of the apatite grains and the hydrothermal system from which the apatite crystallized. The results reveal changes in the oxidation state of S in apatite that fingerprint the original reducing (i.e.,  $S^{2-}$ ,  $S^{1-}$ ) conditions during mineralization, and oxidizing (i.e.,  $S^{4+}$ ,  $S^{6+}$ ) conditions during post-mineralization hydrothermal alteration.

## **2. Geologic background**

The Phillips Mine-Camp Smith area is located in the Hudson Highlands, and serves as an example for several iron deposits located in southeastern New York. The mines overlay the Grenville basement spanning New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania and Connecticut (Fig. 1; Kalczyński and Gates, 2014). Specifically, the Phillips Mine is located on the North flank of Anthony's Nose peak, at the east end of Bear Mountain Bridge, North of Peekskill, NY, and east of the Hudson River ( $41.3256^\circ$  N,  $73.9514^\circ$  W; Fig. 1; Klemic et al. 1959; Groves et al. 2010).

Mining activity dates to the early nineteenth century when the deposit was exploited for iron ore (Robinson, 1825; Beck, 1842; Betts, 1997). Iron mining was short lived, owing to the relatively high abundance of sulfides and apatite that decrease the ore grade. The deposit was mined for copper starting in the 1860s, and is identified in 1872 as the Hudson River Copper Mine. In the 1880s, the mine produced sulfides for production of sulfuric acid (Kemp, 1894). Efforts were made to reopen the mine for Cu in the early twentieth century, but it was the discovery of uraninite that stimulated significant interest in the 1950s. However, later drilling indicated that the

U concentrations were not economic and no further mining activity was pursued (Klemic et al. 1959).

The mine is part of a northeastward-trending belt of Precambrian crystalline rocks that are bound by faults on the southeast and northwest. Sulfides and oxides are disseminated in host rocks that include diorite, granite, mafic dikes, metamorphosed Precambrian sedimentary rocks, hornblende pegmatite, and gneiss. The main ore body at the Phillips Mine is lenticular in shape, approximately 30 m wide and > 90 m deep, and hosted in hornblende pegmatite. The ore body dips to the northwest at about 70 degrees and strikes northeast following the direction of surrounding formations. The ore body is comprised of both disseminated and massive mineralization, e.g., mainly massive pyrrhotite (with as much as 3 wt% Ni), along with pyrite, magnetite and chalcopyrite (Loveman, 1911; Klemic et al. 1959). The thickness of the ore body thins to the southwest, and remains unexposed to the northeast. The ore is S-rich, containing as much as 30 wt% S, up to 0.5 wt% Cu, and 0.3 - 3 wt% Ni (Kemp, 1894; Klemic et al. 1959).

Klemic et al. (1959) report the following paragenetic sequence from oldest to youngest: uraninite, magnetite, pyrite, chalcopyrite, and pyrrhotite. A maximum age of 920 Ma for mineralization was determined by U-Pb dating of uraninite (Klemic et al. 1959). Textural relations indicate that pyrrhotite precipitated in open space, and also replaced hornblende. Gangue minerals include feldspar, pyroxene, hornblende, epidote, calcite, augite, pyroxene, quartz, and apatite (Zodac, 1933).

### **3. Sample description**

Hand samples were collected in the open mine dumps leading up to the main mine shaft. Apatite grains, translucent to opaque brown in color, contain inclusions of pyrrhotite (Po), pyrite (Py),



magnetite (Mt), ferroan carbonate (Cb), pyroxene (Pyx) and monazite (Mnz). The two grains, referred to in this study as grain A and grain B, were chosen for detailed analyses as described below.

## **4. Methods**

### ***4.1. Electron probe micro-analysis (EPMA)***

The two apatite grains from the Phillips Mine were first mounted in epoxy and polished for observation by using a petrographic microscope and back-scattered electron (BSE) imaging. Quantitative characterization of the apatite grains was made by using a CAMECA SX-100 electron probe micro-analyzer (EPMA). Analyses were conducted at the Electron Microbeam Analysis Laboratory (EMAL), University of Michigan (UM, Ann Arbor, USA), and at the American Museum of Natural History (AMNH, New York, USA).

Electron probe micro-analyzer was used to measure the major, and trace element compositions (i.e., P, Ni, Cl, F, Ca, Na, K, Mg, Ti, Mn, S, Sr, Ba, Al, Si). The samples were carbon coated and peak counting times of 20 s were used for all elements, except 5 s for F, and 50 s for Ni. An acceleration voltage of 15 kV, a beam current of 10 nA, and a beam size of 2  $\mu\text{m}$  were used for all elements, except for S (Table 1; Supplemental Data Table S1-S4). Fluorine measurements were monitored for evidence of beam-induced migration (Goldoff et al. 2012). A second beam condition of 15 kV, 35 nA, 1  $\mu\text{m}$  beam, and counting times of 60 - 300 s was used to analyze S. Two different EPMA sessions to categorize the S in apatite resulted in detection limits of 30  $\mu\text{g/g}$  and 58  $\mu\text{g/g}$  S (Supplemental Data Table S4). Consistent with Konecke et al. (2017a), this procedure produced reliable results, confirmed by frequent monitoring of Durango apatite as a secondary check standard (e.g., F contents are reproduced within 1 sigma uncertainty of  $\pm 0.3$  wt%). For EPMA line transects 1 and 6-9 we measured the S content in trace mode, using the

previously determined average composition of the Phillips Mine apatite for matrix correction (Supplemental Data Table S4). The OH content of apatite for each individual EPMA spot can be estimated with the constraint that the halogen site is filled by  $X_F + X_{Cl} + X_{OH} = 1$  (Hughes and Rakovan, 2015). We used the method of Ketcham et al. (2015) to calculate the OH concentration in apatite (Supplementary Data Tables S1 and S4).

Concentrations of S, Fe, Ni, and O in pyrrhotite, pyrite, and magnetite were analyzed by using an acceleration voltage of 20 kV, a beam current of 50 nA, and a focused beam (Supplemental Data Table S2). Major and trace elements (i.e., Mg, Al, Si, Ti, Ca, P, V, Cr, Fe, Mn) in pyroxene were analyzed by using an acceleration voltage of 20 kV, a beam current of 30 nA, and a focused beam (Supplemental Data Table S3). Prior to analysis of Mg, Ca, Mn, Fe, and C concentrations in the ferroan carbonate phase, the samples were re-polished extensively, ultrasonicated, and gold-coated. The ferroan carbonate phase was analyzed at an acceleration voltage of 15 kV, a beam current of 10 nA, and a beam size of 10  $\mu\text{m}$  (Supplemental Data Table S3).

#### ***4.2. Cathodoluminescence (CL) imaging and Wavelength Dispersive Spectroscopy (WDS) mapping***

A JEOL JSM - 7800 FLV field emission scanning electron microscope (FE-SEM), fitted with a Gatan ChromaCL2 CL imaging detector, was used to further characterize the apatite grains. The FE-SEM was used to generate high-resolution CL images and energy dispersive spectroscopy (EDS) elemental maps of the apatite grains. An accelerating voltage of 15 kV was used for the CL imaging and 15-20 kV for the EDS element mapping. Additionally, EDS point analyses on the FE-SEM were used to identify monazite present in the apatite grains (maps not shown).

The electron probe was also used to generate qualitative element compositional maps for S, Na, Cl, and Ce by using wavelength dispersive spectroscopy (WDS) with an acceleration voltage of 15 kV, beam current of 100 nA, dwell time 0.1 s, and a focused beam

### ***4.3. Sulfur X-ray absorption near edge structure spectroscopy (S XANES)***

Micro-XANES spectroscopy line scans were collected on the Phillips Mine apatite grains A and B. The measurements were conducted at the Advanced Photon Source (APS), GSECARS 13-ID-E beamline, Argonne National Laboratory (USA). The beamline uses a high-flux beam ( $\geq 4.5 \times 10^{10}$  photons/s/100 mA/mm<sup>2</sup>) that, by using Kirkpatrick-Baez (KB) focusing mirrors, can generate a spatial resolution micro-focused spot size beam of 2 x 1  $\mu$ m, with an energy range of 2.4-28 kV. The XANES spectra were collected at an energy range of 2450-2540 eV, with step size of 0.1- 0.3 eV at the S K-edge (2464-2482 eV). Two scans per step, with step scan durations of 1-3 scans per energy step, were used to reach higher S X-ray counts needed for spectra of high-quality and to analyze S in the apatite grains.

There is a shift in energy ( $\sim 12$  eV) of the S K-edge between S<sup>2-</sup> and S<sup>6+</sup>. This difference allows the assessment of the valence of S in unknown samples by measuring the shift in energy of the absorption edge (Paris et al. 2001). We compared our spectra from unknown samples with spectra for known S species of particular oxidation state. Reference material included Durango apatite (sulfite, S<sup>4+</sup>, peak near 2478 eV and sulfate, S<sup>6+</sup>,  $\sim 2482$  eV), sodium sulfite (S<sup>4+</sup>,  $\sim 2478$  eV), pyrite (S<sup>1-</sup>,  $\sim 2471$  eV), pyrrhotite (sulfide, S<sup>2-</sup>, characterized by having both a sharp peak at  $\sim 2470$  eV and a broad peak at  $\sim 2476$  eV), and double-sided adhesive tape (sulfate, S<sup>6+</sup>, all session value:  $2481.8 \pm 0.06$  eV,  $1\sigma$  error; see Fig. 2; Fig. S1; Fleet, 2005; Konecke et al. 2017a)

We emphasize that prolonged exposure of apatite to the high-flux photon beam at the 13-ID-E beamline does not affect the oxidation state of S in apatite as shown by Konecke et al.

(2017a). However, the samples were re-polished extensively, prior to each XANES session, to prevent possible electron beam irradiation damage generated during EPMA that could affect the oxidation state of S in apatite.

Four XANES line transects (red dotted arrows; Fig. 3; Fig. 4) were collected on the two apatite grains starting near the edge of: (1) a pyrrhotite inclusion (transect lengths = 60 - 70  $\mu\text{m}$ ; grain A), and (2) an inclusion assemblage consisting of pyrite, ferroan carbonate, pyroxene, and magnetite (transect lengths = 90 - 120  $\mu\text{m}$ ; grain B), moving away from the inclusions and into the apatite host (Fig. 3E, 4E). The apatite-inclusion interface is inferred with 2-3  $\mu\text{m}$  uncertainty, considering the precision of the stage and the spot size.

#### ***4.3.1. Data Processing - Peak area integration & spectra correction of S XANES spectra***

The software package Athena (Ifeffit package, Ravel and Newville, 2005) was used to normalize the pre- and post-edge, and merge the raw XANES spectra. The curve and peak fitting software, Fityk, (Wojdyr, 2010) was used for peak area integration. For background fitting, an exponentially modified Gaussian (EMG) function, with a set inflection position at 2478-2480 eV, was used. The Gaussian A (i.e., area) function was then applied to fit the ionization peak (if present) and energies for  $\text{S}^{6+}$ ,  $\text{S}^{4+}$ , and  $\text{S}^{2-}$  (including both broad and sharp peaks). The peak area ratios of the oxidation states of S were used to test and demonstrate changes in the oxidation state of S in apatite. The spectra that contained  $\text{S}^{6+}$  were used, and integrated as  $\text{S}^{6+}/\sum\text{S}$  peak area ratios [ $\text{S}^{6+}/\sum\text{S}_{\text{area}}$ ; e.g.,  $\sum\text{S}_{\text{Total}} = (\text{S}^{6+} + \text{S}^{4+} + \text{S}^{1-} + \text{S}^{2-})$ ] to correlate with  $\mu\text{g/g}$  S. Durango apatite was used as a check standard for XANES analyses. The intra-session average integrated  $\text{S}^{6+}/\sum\text{S}_{\text{Total}}$  peak area ratio for Durango apatite =  $0.954 \pm 0.003$  eV ( $1\sigma$  standard error) is consistent with values reported by Konecke et al. (2017a).

## 5. Results

### 5.1. Sample Characterization using BSE imaging, CL, EDS, and WDS element mapping

Inclusions of pyrrhotite (Po; length of ~0.8 mm), pyrite (Py; <60  $\mu\text{m}$ ), magnetite (Mt; ~110  $\mu\text{m}$ ), monazite (Mnz; <10  $\mu\text{m}$ ), pyroxene (Pyx; <35  $\mu\text{m}$ ), and Fe-carbonate (~260  $\mu\text{m}$ ) were identified in the apatite through a combination of BSE imaging, EDS point analyses and WDS element mapping (Fig. 3; Fig.4). Monazite is observed in veins cutting through the apatite grains as well as distributed throughout as inclusions (Fig. 3C). Energy dispersive spectroscopy identified rare earth element-rich inclusion (i.e., monazite) within apatite, and O-Fe-Ni-S altered assemblage within the pyrrhotite. Cathodoluminescence (CL) images of apatite illustrate blue-violet dominant color luminescence with complex zoning (Fig. 3D, 4D).

In Figure 5, semi-qualitative WDS maps of S, Cl, and Ce are compared with a CL image for the same portion of an apatite grain. Higher counts for Ce, Cl, and S (Fig. 5C-E) often correlate with light colored zones in the CL image (Fig. 5B). Lighter zones in CL also show higher S  $\mu\text{g/g}$  while darker colored zones, in CL, indicate lower S  $\mu\text{g/g}$ . For example, in Fig. 6 transect 1, low S concentration (position 29-45  $\mu\text{m}$ ; Fig. 6A, Fig.7) correlates with darker CL zones (Fig. 3E), whereas, more CL active (brighter) zones correlate with higher S concentrations (between 50-80  $\mu\text{m}$ ).

Generally, S, Cl, and Ce counts correlate spatially within the apatite grain, aside from in the veinlet running across the apatite grain (Fig. 5E), that is S-bearing only. Also, different degrees of S enrichment are observed in regions which are otherwise evenly enriched in Cl. Cerium shows localized enrichment (highest counts/ “bright-globules”) in veins which are attributed to the presence of monazite. Similarly, localized S “bright-globules” (length <10  $\mu\text{m}$ ) are observed near

cracks and in veins. The EDS elemental maps do not indicate overlap with other elements (i.e., Fe, Ni, Cu, Ca), hence the S-rich globules may represent native S inclusions.

## 5.2. EPMA and XANES

The Phillips Mine apatite grains are characterized as fluorapatite, containing on average 2.4 wt% F, 0.5 wt% Cl and 0.86% OH\* wt% (\*calculated based on stoichiometry; see Table 1 and Fig. 8; Fig. S2; Hughes and Rakovan, 2015; Ketcham, 2015). The S concentration in the apatite grains is highly variable (Fig. 6 and 7); e.g., average S content in the grains is approximately 190  $\mu\text{g/g}$ , and varies from  $<100 \mu\text{g/g}$  S to  $\sim 930 \mu\text{g/g}$  S (Fig. 9A). Higher concentrations of S typically correlate spatially with increased REE contents, up to 5,000  $\mu\text{g/g}$  ( $\text{Ce}_2\text{O}_3 \pm \text{La}_2\text{O}_3$ ; hereafter  $\text{REE}_{\text{tot}}$ ; Fig. 6E is representative of the nine EPMA transects), which are consistent with the WDS maps and CL images (Fig. 5).

Similar to S concentration fluctuations throughout the apatite, S also ranges within the pyrrhotite inclusion. The EPMA point analyses of the O-Fe-Ni-S altered zones within the pyrrhotite inclusion show increased S contents (51-42 wt% S), lower Fe content (50-33 wt% Fe), and higher Ni ( $\sim 1$  wt%) when compared to the pyrrhotite itself ( $\sim 39$  wt% S;  $\sim 59$  wt% Fe; 0.5 wt% Ni; Supplemental Data Table S2 and Fig. S3). Additional point analyses were conducted on other unknown phases, and reveal carbonate incorporating 41.6-51.2 wt% Fe (hereafter considered as ferroan carbonate; Supplemental Data Table S3; Fig. 4C).

Aside from point analyses, nine EPMA line transects were collected (transect lengths = 75 - 104  $\mu\text{m}$ ) away from pyrrhotite (in grain A) and pyrite-containing (grain B) inclusions. Most transects were parallel and proximal to the four XANES transects in order to correlate changes in oxidation state of S with concentration of S, and other elements, in apatite (see Fig. 3 and 4). Analyses of apatite adjacent to sulfide grains could yield spuriously high S contents due to the

secondary fluorescence of the sulfide grains (cf. Llovet and Galan, 2003; Fig. S4). Modeling of the secondary fluorescence effects using the PENEPMA software (Llovet and Salvat, 2016) show that secondary fluorescence would contribute  $<1 \mu\text{g/g}$  S measured in apatite for points greater than  $50 \mu\text{m}$  from an apatite-sulfide boundary. Specifically, at approximately  $30 \mu\text{m}$  from the interface, measured concentrations will be artificially higher by  $10 \mu\text{g/g}$ , at approximately  $12 \mu\text{m}$  from the interface, measured concentrations will be  $100 \mu\text{g/g}$  higher (e.g., Fig. 7B), etc. Thus, few analyses (e.g., first spots in transects 1, 4, and 7) are notably affected by secondary fluorescence. While these particular results need to be interpreted with caution, we highlight that the effects are typically negligible, and do not change the interpretation of this study. Furthermore, modeling of the volume of material intersected by the electron beam using CASINO Monte-Carlo simulation software (Drouin et al. 2007) indicates that S  $K\alpha$  X-rays are generated within approximately  $1.2 \mu\text{m}$  of the sample surface. Since the penetration depth of soft X-rays at the S  $K$ -edge by use of XANES is approximately  $0.2 \mu\text{m}$  (Troger et al. 1992; Fleet, 2005), analytical artifacts or fluorescence of sulfides is unlikely.

The XANES transects show that the apatite grains consist of variable ratios of S oxidation states: sulfate ( $\text{S}^{6+}$ ;  $2481.8 \pm 0.3 \text{ eV}$ ), sulfite ( $\text{S}^{4+}$ ;  $2477.9 \pm 0.4 \text{ eV}$ ), monosulfide ( $\text{S}^{1-}$ ;  $2471.8 \pm 0.1 \text{ eV}$ ), and disulfide ( $\text{S}^{2-}$ ;  $2469.8 \pm 0.04 \text{ eV}$ ;  $1\sigma$  error; Fig. S1). Location of the XANES transects within the apatite is confirmed by comparing the intensity of normalized and unnormalized spectra (Fig. S5). The low intensity of the S in apatite unnormalized spectra indicates the location of the collected spectra within the apatite while the high intensity indicates location within the iron sulfide.

Sulfur peak areas ( $\text{S}^{6+}/\sum \text{S}_{\text{area}}$ ) demonstrate systematic variations in  $\text{S}^{6+}/\sum \text{S}_{\text{area}}$  (on average  $0.30 \pm 0.4 \text{ eV}$ ,  $1\sigma$  error; Fig. 9B), where elevated  $\text{S}^{6+}/\sum \text{S}_{\text{area}}$  ratios typically coincide with higher

concentrations of S and rare earth elements (Fig. 10). We highlight that the provided  $S^{6+}/\sum S_{\text{area}}$  values are “integrated peak area ratios” that are used to evaluate relative changes in the oxidation states of S, and not explicitly absolute concentration ratios. However, due to the fitting method developed by Konecke et al. (2017a) involving precise background fitting, the integration of each absorption peak may yield near-quantitative results.



**Table 1. Apatite A and B - EPMA Analyses**  
wt% oxide

Sample	Apatite A: AA2-3	Apatite B: AB1-7	SD wt% oxide	Det limit ( $\mu\text{g/g}$ )
F	2.43	2.23	0.26	2344
Cl	0.55	0.53	0.04	188
Na <sub>2</sub> O	b.d.	b.d.	0.04	440
K <sub>2</sub> O	b.d.	b.d.	b.d.	279
MgO	b.d.	0.02	0.01	236
CaO	55.01	0.67	1.71	366
SiO <sub>2</sub>	0.25	42.08	0.08	1311
P <sub>2</sub> O <sub>5</sub> *	41.79	54.13	0.67	713
TiO <sub>2</sub>	b.d.	b.d.	0.01	488
MnO	b.d.	b.d.	0.04	282
FeO	b.d.	0.02	0.06	69
SrO	b.d.	b.d.	0.06	740
BaO	b.d.	b.d.	0.10	716
Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	b.d.	b.d.	0.02	1588
La <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	b.d.	b.d.	b.d.	1812
Ce <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	0.15	b.d.	0.09	1809
SO <sub>2</sub>	0.01	b.d.	0.01	894
O = (F,Cl)	1.15	1.06		
OH wt% calc.	99.87	99.66		
Total	0.82	1.03		
S ( $\mu\text{g/g}$ )	57.6	87.6		
F**	1.34	1.22		
Cl**	0.16	0.16		
OH**	0.49	0.62		
F + Cl + OH	2.00	2.00		

Notes:

2 selected samples from each apatite grain are presented.

b.d. is below detection limit.

Calculated as OH assuming the halogen site is filled with F + Cl + OH.

O=F,Cl is correction factor.

SD wt% oxide averages are presented for each oxide.

Average SD for F and Cl represented in wt%.

Analyses given in 1 $\sigma$  standard error of mean.

\* P<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> drift was detected and corrected based on systematic shift in both unknown and durango apatite measurement.

\*\* Data used in ternary plot.

## 6. Discussion

### 6.1. Chemical and mineralogical evidence for metasomatic alteration

Apatite can record metasomatic reactions that result in mass transfer of elements such as S and REEs between the fluid and the apatite, altering the original chemical composition of apatite (Harlov, 2015). Chemical alteration is not limited to diffusive exchange mechanisms, but includes dissolution-reprecipitation reactions (Harlov, 2015 and references therein). The presence of (secondary) monazite in the Phillips Mine fluorapatite grains (Fig. 3, 4) suggests secondary growth, during hydrothermal alteration, due to coupled dissolution–precipitation reaction; where the hydrothermal fluid migrates through interconnected, three dimensional nano- and micro-porosity structures, the apatite becomes depleted in REEs  $\pm$  Na + Si (Harlov and Förster, 2003; Harlov, 2015; Betkowski et al. 2016). The REEs initially dissolved within the apatite structure are exsolved during reactions with the fluid, and manifest as [REE]PO<sub>4</sub> mineral inclusions. The exsolution process of [REE]PO<sub>4</sub> includes Na and Si that are preferentially removed from apatite by the fluid, which by mass balance increases the concentrations of REE at the apatite-fluid interface, and culminates in local [REE]PO<sub>4</sub> supersaturation and nucleation (Wolf and London, 1995). The result is an apatite domain that is enriched in LREEs, and another domain that is depleted in these elements and contains, or is proximal to, monazite inclusions (Harlov et al. 2002).

The fluorapatite also hosts an inclusion of pyrrhotite. The pyrrhotite exhibits S-Ni-rich and Fe-poor (relative to end-member pyrrhotite) dendritic-like domains that are consistent with alteration (Fig. 3C). These changes in concentration possibly formed as a result of metasomatism, which caused oxidation of pyrrhotite, and remobilization of the S-Fe-Ni (Supplemental Data Table S2 and Fig. S3A). The WDS element maps (Fig. 5E) show higher counts in the S-bearing veinlet

only, compared to the Cl and Ce maps, which further supports the involvement of a S-bearing fluid in the apatite.

Other evidence for fluid-mediated metasomatism of the apatite grains is shown in CL images, which exhibit strong variations in violet luminescence. Cathodoluminescence in apatite is not produced by halogens, but rather is the result of trace element substitutions into the apatite structure (Waychunas, 2002). The intensity and perceived color of luminescence are due to the presence of specific ions, or groups of ions, most commonly  $\text{Mn}^{2+}$ , which causes yellow luminescence, and  $\text{REE}^{3+}$  that cause violet-blue luminescence (Götze et al. 2001; Waychunas, 2002; Kempe and Götze, 2002; Götze, 2012). Variations in the concentrations of  $\text{Mn}^{2+}$  and  $\text{REE}^{3+}$  at the ( $\mu\text{g/g}$ ) level can cause observable changes in the CL intensity as well (Gros et al. 2016). The apatite grains from the Phillips Mine show blue-violet CL emission similar to other hydrothermal iron ore deposits, such as the Cerro de Mercado mine in Durango, Mexico, in the Grenville formation at Mineville, New York, and in the Atlas Mountains of Morocco (Waychunas, 2002). As with the Phillips Mine, these deposits contain fluorapatite that displays blue-violet emission, and is dominated by  $\text{Ce}^{3+}$  activation (Waychunas, 2002).

The CL zonation in the apatite grains is coincident with variations in the abundances of REE and S (Fig. 5 and 7E). These variations suggest remobilization of Ce, due to a S bearing fluid event, that later reprecipitated and formed monazite and the REE-rich vein (Fig. 3C). The CL image in Fig. 5B shows patchy zoning, interpreted as affiliated with this fluid event. Another independent fluid event may have occurred, as the WDS relative intensity maps of Cl, Ce, and S (Fig. 5) do not correlate in the veinlet (Fig. 5E), which is high only in S. A separate fluid event may have resulted in the overall spatial correlation between the three elements (Cl, S, Ce). Lastly,

the native S globules (e.g., S<sub>7-8</sub>; Fig. 5E) perhaps formed during cooling of trapped fluid inclusions in the apatite, as proposed in previous studies of similar systems (Beny, 1982; Barré et al. 2015).

## **6.2. Sulfur oxidation states in hydrothermal apatite: Implications for ore forming processes**

The S XANES measurements demonstrate the presence of four oxidation states of S in the Phillips Mine apatite grains: S<sup>2-</sup>, S<sup>1-</sup>, S<sup>4+</sup>, and S<sup>6+</sup> which reflect a range of  $f_{O_2}$  environments (Fig. 2). The apatite grains are typically low in S (often <200 µg/g S) and these S-poor areas are dominated by reduced S species ( $S^{6+}/\sum S_{\text{area}} < 0.4$ ; often < 0.2; Fig. 9; Fig. 10). Conversely, S-rich areas (up to 930 µg/g S) are characterized by  $S^{6+}/\sum S_{\text{area}}$  values that approach 1.0. The chemical, textural, and the ratio correlations described above indicate a formation of the apatite by a reduced fluid, probably in the presence of sulfides. Subsequently, an oxidized fluid altered the apatite resulting in the formation of sulfate-rich apatite regions through dissolution-reprecipitation reactions. Here, it remains unclear if this fluid was rich in oxidized S or if the fluid simply had an oxidizing character, which resulted in the dissolution of sulfide and the oxidation of sulfide to sulfate.

The S<sup>1-</sup> regions observed in the apatite mark the first report of this oxidation state in the literature, and may have formed as a result of hydrothermal alteration near the pyrite. Here, the pyrite and apatite are either (1) locally dissolved and S<sup>1-</sup> is incorporated into apatite during reprecipitation, or (2) S<sup>1-</sup> is introduced through diffusive exchange in solid state. The latter scenario only requires a heat source and is favored because during dissolution-reprecipitation reactions S<sup>1-</sup> may not be the stable species in the fluid phase. However, the presence of significant amounts of S<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> radicals in the fluid (e.g., Pokrovski and Dubrovinsky, 2011; Pokrovski and Dubessy, 2015;

Fontboté et al. 2017) may allow the transfer of  $S^{1-}$  from the pyrite to the apatite by solid state diffusive exchange (2).

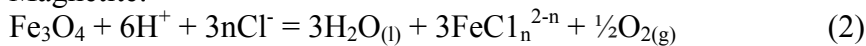
### 6.3. A model for the formation of the Phillips Mine apatite

The magnetite-pyrite-pyrrhotite assemblage is common in hydrothermal sulfide-oxide mineral deposits (Barnes and Czamanske, 1967; Hall, 1986), where mineralization is driven by changes in temperature, pH of the ore fluid, and redox conditions (Fontboté et al. 2017). The following equilibria, from Crerar et al. (1978), describe how changes in pH and redox conditions can cause precipitation of pyrrhotite, pyrite, and magnetite from a hypogene ore fluid:

Pyrite:



Magnetite:

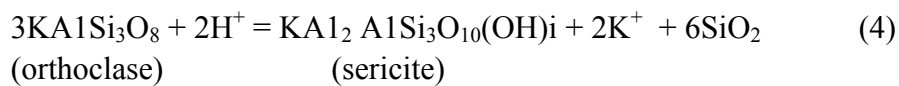


Pyrrhotite:



The observations in the present study are most plausibly consistent with two distinct hydrothermal events, illustrated schematically in Fig. 11. The first stage involves precipitation of pyrrhotite, pyrite, magnetite, and apatite from a reduced ore fluid (Fig. 11A-B), while the second stage involves post-mineralization coupled dissolution-reprecipitation of apatite in the presence of an oxidized hydrothermal fluid (Fig. 11C-F). Experimental data demonstrate that the solubilities of Fe and S in a reduced hydrothermal fluid decrease with decreasing temperature (Crerar et al, 1978). In the case of the Phillips Mine, Klemic et al. (1959) describe replacement textures where sulfides and oxides replaced silicate phases such as feldspar, hornblende and augite. The paragenetic sequence reported by Klemic et al. (1959) in order of mineral precipitation is

magnetite, pyrite, chalcopyrite, pyrrhotite. Small fluctuations in redox conditions during cooling and water-rock interaction can drive the ore fluid into the pyrrhotite stability field, consistent with pyrrhotite being the most modally abundant sulfide in the Phillips Mine ore body. Further, water-rock reactions between the ore fluid and the host rocks cause the pH of the ore fluid to increase, owing to loss of hydrogen during hydrolysis of feldspar to sericite, as described by the Crerar et al. (1978) reaction:



Klemic et al. (1959) report that feldspar, in the host rocks, is ubiquitously altered to sericite. Increasing the pH of the ore fluid by one log unit, as it percolates through the host rock, decreases the solubility of Fe in the ore fluid by two orders of magnitude (Crerar et al. 1978). Oxidation of the ore fluid and increasing pH also decrease the solubility of S in the ore fluid and trigger precipitation of metal sulfides. Thus, the combination of decreasing temperature and increasing pH of the ore fluid are the most plausible explanations for the precipitation of sulfides and oxides that formed the primary mineral assemblage at the Phillips Mine.

Apatite is a common mineral in hydrothermal ore deposits, and it is plausible that apatite co-crystallized with the primary assemblage pyrrhotite - pyrite - magnetite. Primary apatite precipitating from a reduced hydrothermal S-bearing fluid will incorporate reduced S, as S<sup>2-</sup> and S<sup>1-</sup>, as revealed by the S XANES analyses reported in this study. A second hydrothermal event is interpreted by the presence of exsolved monazite in apatite and the strong zonation of REEs, Cl, and S within the apatite grains (Fig. 3 and 4). The S XANES analyses show that domains within the Phillips Mine apatite are enriched in oxidized S (mainly S<sup>6+</sup>), an observation that is consistent with metasomatism caused by an oxidized hydrothermal fluid. Lastly, the ferroan carbonate,

encapsulating magnetite, pyroxene and pyrite (Fig. 4C), may be primary or an alteration phase (of sulfides) by an oxidized CO<sub>2</sub>-bearing fluid that is a common constituent in skarn deposits (Meinert, 1992).

## 7. Conclusions

Sulfur XANES data reveal that the apatite grains from the Phillips Mine hydrothermal sulfide-magnetite mineral deposit contain structurally bound S<sup>2-</sup>, S<sup>1-</sup>, S<sup>4+</sup>, S<sup>6+</sup>. This study is the first to report four different oxidation states of S in natural apatite. Varying proportions of these structurally bound oxidation states were observed throughout the grains. Here, the S<sup>6+</sup>/∑S<sub>area</sub> ratio ranges from zero sulfate to sulfate-only and the abundance of S in apatite correlates positively with the abundance of oxidized S (S<sup>4+</sup> and S<sup>6+</sup>). Interpretations are consistent with the ability of apatite to incorporate higher concentrations of oxidized S relative to reduced S in magmatic systems (Parat et al. 2011; Konecke et al. 2017a). The presence of monazite fingerprints fluid-mediated dissolution-precipitation of originally REE-bearing apatite. This finding, of multiple oxidation states of S, and the presence of monazite inclusions that record secondary dissolution-reprecipitation of apatite, indicate differences in S and oxygen fugacity during primary mineralization and metasomatism. This study demonstrates that the transition from S<sup>2-</sup> to S<sup>6+</sup> may occur over a narrow interval, and that the oxidation state of S in apatite provides valuable geochemical information regarding the redox evolution of magmatic-hydrothermal systems. The study shows that S can no longer be reported solely as sulfate species, and care should be taken to identify the specific oxidation state. Lastly, previous experiments performed at magmatic conditions do not necessarily apply to magmatic-hydrothermal systems. Future experiments are needed in order to understand S geochemistry in apatite from hydrothermal deposits.

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## Figure Captions

**Fig. 1.** Location of the Phillips Mine, New York, U.S.A. 41.3256° N, 73.9514° W.

**Fig. 2.** The oxidation states of S in apatite represented by XANES normalized spectra. The dotted lines are in-house (APS) XANES spectra of S-bearing reference compounds with known oxidation states; bottom solid lines are S in apatite from this study **A.** The  $S^{1-}$  (peak position 2471 eV) in both pyrite (in-house standard from APS) and in the apatite (selected spectra is from Transect 4). **B.** The  $S^{2-}$  broad and sharp peaks (position 2476 eV; 2470 eV) in pyrrhotite standard (in-house standard from APS) and in apatite (spectra shown from Fig. 3E; Transect 1). A  $S^{6+}$  peak also exists (2482 eV) pointing to the location of the transect within the apatite only. **C.** First top dotted line spectra represent the sodium sulfite in-house standard for  $S^{4+}$ , and the second dotted line the clear double-sided adhesive tape, used as the  $S^{6+}$  standard (2478 eV; 2482 eV; selected spectra is from Transect 4 in Fig. 4).

**Fig. 3.** BSE and CL images of apatite grain A. **A.** BSE image of entire apatite (Ap) grain A with large pyrrhotite (Po) inclusion. **B.** BSE image of pyrrhotite with surrounding apatite. **C.** Annotated BSE image showing pyrrhotite (Po), monazite (Mnz;  $[(REE)PO_4]$ ), REE-rich vein, and euhedral pyrite (Py) in the apatite (Ap). **D.** CL image shows blue-violet-luminescence of grain A with complex zoning; EPMA beam traces are visible for transect 1 **E.** CL image with five EPMA line transects (blue dotted arrows), starting in the pyrrhotite and ending in the apatite. The two XANES transects are marked by red dotted arrows.



**Fig. 4.** BSE images and CL images of apatite grain B. **A.** Overview BSE image of  $\sim\frac{1}{3}$  of grain B. **B.** BSE image focused on area of study. **C.** Annotated BSE image; showing monazite (Mnz), magnetite (Mt), pyrite (Py), ferroan carbonate (Cb), pyroxene (Pyx), and secondary phases in the apatite (Ap). **D.** CL image shows the blue-violet-luminescent of grain B with complex zoning; EPMA beam traces are visible for all four transects. **E.** CL image with four EPMA line transects (blue dotted arrow), starting near the multi-phase inclusion. The two XANES transects are marked by red dotted arrows.

**Fig. 5.** CL image and WDS element maps collected on apatite grain A. **A.** CL image collected near the large pyrrhotite inclusion in apatite grain A. **B.** Zoomed in CL image. **C.** WDS map of Ce. **D.** WDS map of Cl. **E.** Color scale ranges from low (blue) to high (orange) indicating relative concentrations of S in the WDS map.

**Fig. 6.** EPMA transects collected in grain A (Fig. 3E) away from pyrrhotite and into the apatite (data listed in supplementary Table S4). Dotted line represents EPMA limit of detection. The error bars indicate the  $2\sigma$  standard deviation of the measured values. **A.** Transect 1; 0-26  $\mu\text{m}$  on pyrrhotite (results not displayed), 26-80  $\mu\text{m}$  on apatite. The first point of transect 1 may be slightly affected by secondary fluorescence produced by the adjacent pyrrhotite. **B.** Transect 2; 0-13  $\mu\text{m}$  on pyrrhotite, 13-93  $\mu\text{m}$  on apatite. **C.** Transect 3; 0-20  $\mu\text{m}$  on pyrrhotite, 20-94  $\mu\text{m}$  on apatite. **D.** Transect 4; 0-8  $\mu\text{m}$  on pyrrhotite; 8-75  $\mu\text{m}$  on apatite. The first point of transect 4 may be slightly affected by secondary fluorescence produced by the adjacent pyrrhotite. **E.** Transect 2 (Ce + La) concentrations in apatite. **F.** Transect 5; 0-5  $\mu\text{m}$  on pyrrhotite, 15-91  $\mu\text{m}$  on apatite. Transect 1 was conducted in a different EPMA session than transects 2-5 (Table S4), which is

reflected in different respected detection limits.

**Fig. 7.** EPMA line transects collected in grain B (Fig. 4E) away from the multi-phase inclusion into the apatite (data listed in supplementary Table S4). Dotted line represents EPMA limit of detection in apatite. The standard deviation  $2\sigma$  error bars are displayed. **A.** Transect 6; 0-29  $\mu\text{m}$  on pyrite (results not displayed); 30-92  $\mu\text{m}$  on apatite. **B.** Transect 7; 0-10  $\mu\text{m}$  on pyrite (results not displayed); 11-104  $\mu\text{m}$  on apatite. The first two points on apatite a probably affected by secondary fluorescence, resulting in artificially high S contents. **C.** Transect 8; line collected away from the carbonate and into the apatite. 0-20  $\mu\text{m}$  on carbonate (results not displayed); 20-102  $\mu\text{m}$  on apatite. **D.** Transect 9; line collected away from the carbonate and into the apatite. 0-32  $\mu\text{m}$  on carbonate (results not displayed); 32-98  $\mu\text{m}$  on apatite.

**Fig. 8.** Ternary diagram identifies the apatite of the Phillips Mine as fluorapatite. (Supplemental Data Table S1 and S4).

**Fig. 9.** Histograms for S contents and oxidation states. **A.** Histogram of S content measured in the apatite grains. **B.** Histograms of the  $\text{S}^{6+}/\sum\text{S}$  integrated peak area ratio results (including the assumed 0 values for  $\text{S}^{1-}$ ).

**Fig. 10.** Results from S XANES and EPMA line transects. Only results from EPMA transects adjacent and parallel to the XANES transects are displayed. **A,C,E,G.** Normalized XANES spectra from the four line transect collected on the Phillips Mine apatite grains. Each spectrum displayed represents a single location away from the apatite-pyrrhotite interface (**A,C**) or the

apatite-carbonate interface (**E, G**). **A, C**. Transects collected away from the pyrrhotite, into the apatite, show S oxidation ranges from mostly sulfate to mostly sulfide in the apatite. **E, G**. Transects collected away from carbonate and into apatite reveal the presence of  $S^{1-}$ ,  $S^{4+}$  and  $S^{6+}$  in variable proportions. All XANES analyses were conducted at a sufficient distance away from the apatite-pyrrhotite and apatite-pyrite such that secondary fluorescence did not occur. **B, D, F, H**. The integrated peak area ratio of  $S^{6+}/\sum S_{\text{area}}$  plotted against the distance to the pyrrhotite (**B, D**) and ferroan carbonate (**F, H**). Monosulfide ( $S^{1-}$ ) peaks represented as white diamonds and were not included in the  $S^{6+}/\sum S_{\text{area}}$  ratio calculation, thus we set it to zero (i.e., all sulfide). **D**. XANES Transect 2 is located between EPMA Transects 1 and 2 (Fig. 3E). **H**. XANES Transect 4 is located parallel to EPMA Transect 7, and within  $\pm 10 \mu\text{m}$  of each other. The  $2\sigma$  standard error bars are displayed; error bars not visible when smaller than symbol size.

**Fig. 11.** Schematic model illustrating the formation of the Phillips Mine apatite, its texture and its inclusions.

(A) Reduced hydrothermal S-bearing fluid

(B) Iron oxides and iron sulfides crystallized from a hydrothermal fluid. Apatite started to crystallize. The fluid alters existing hornblende to pyroxene.

(C – D) Apatite continued to grow and incorporated the existing phases.

(E) Apatite is altered by a relatively oxidized hydrothermal fluid in the presence of sulfides. This results in the formation of S-poor apatite where S is dominantly present as  $S^{2-}$  in the fluid and the apatite structure. Pyrrhotite then begins to break down (represented in alteration of Po in grain

A). The  $S^{1-}$  regions in the apatite (grain B) near the pyrite form. Cracks cutting through the apatite are formed by alteration.

(F) Hydrothermal oxidized S-bearing fluids percolates through apatite owing to the nano- and micron-scale porosity of apatite, and cause dissolution-reprecipitation of apatite. This metasomatism results in REE-rich veins, monazite, and zones with  $S^{4+}$  and  $S^{6+}$  as identified by XANES. This fluid is also characterized by a higher Cl/F ratios when compared to the primary fluid of stage A. Thus, the re-precipitated apatites are comparably Cl-enriched (Fig. 4), considering the apatite preferentially incorporates F over Cl (Harlov, 2015). Ferroan carbonate may have formed during stages E/F as a result of alteration (Meinert, 1992).

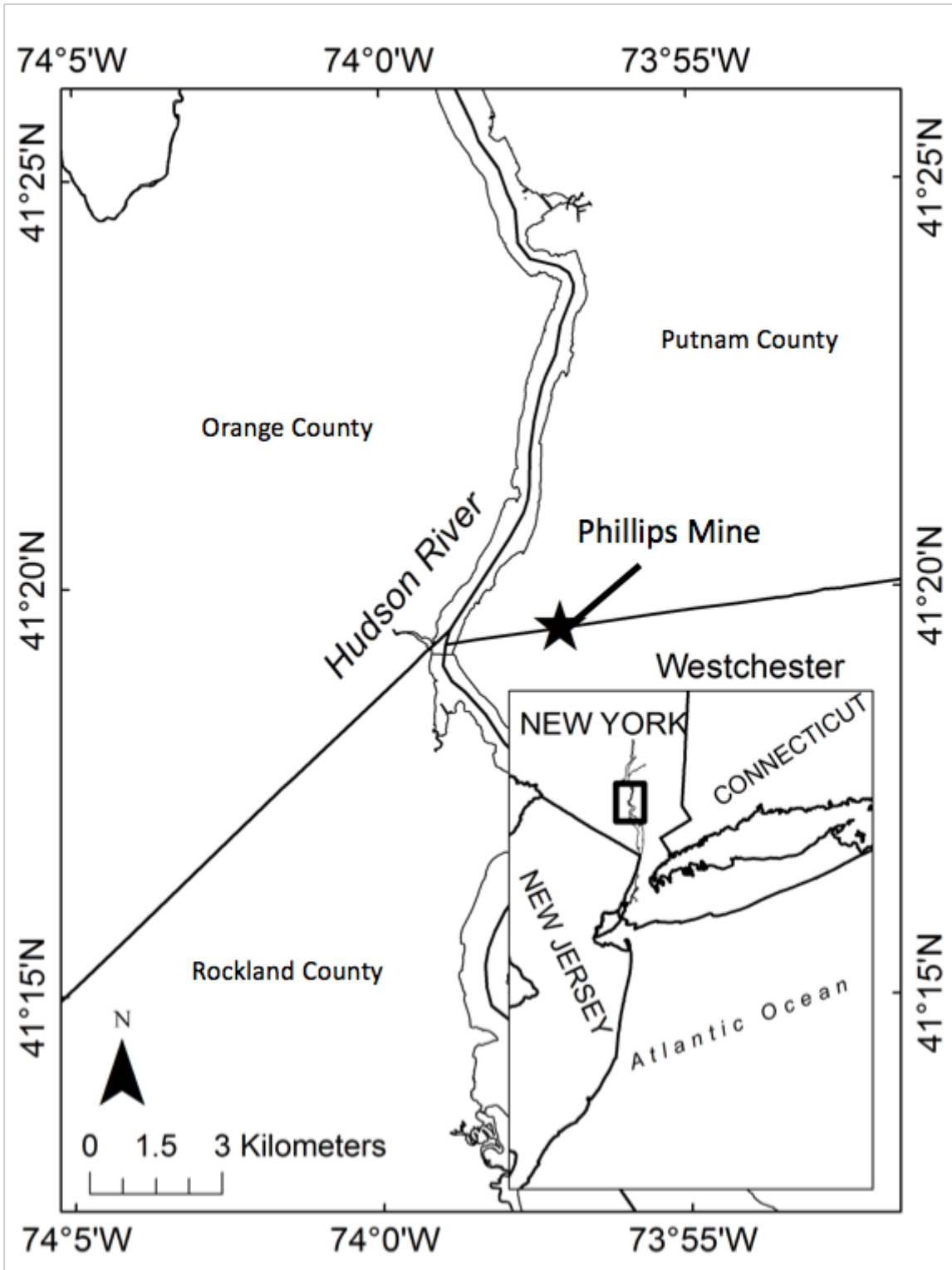


Fig. 1

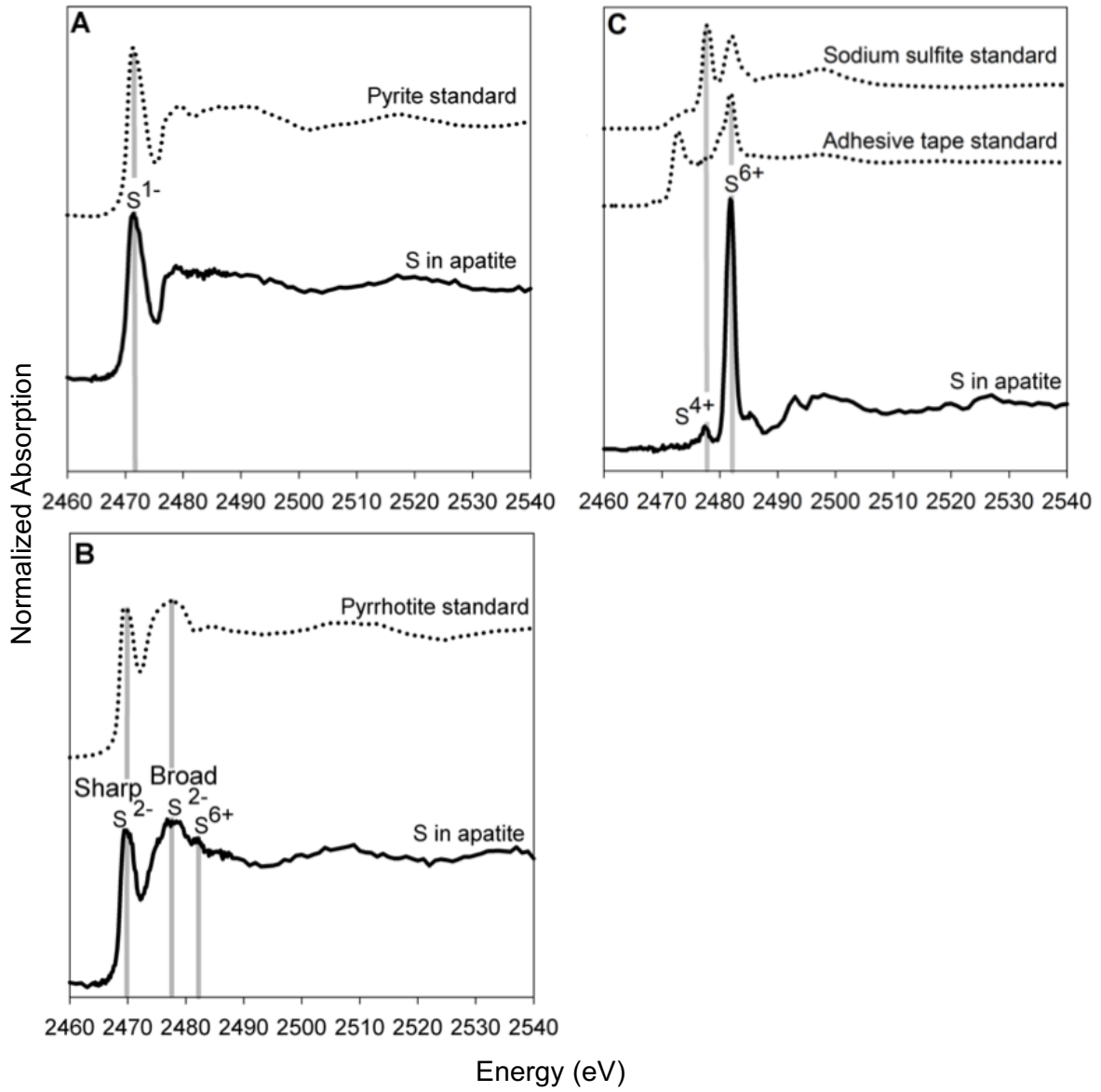


Fig. 2

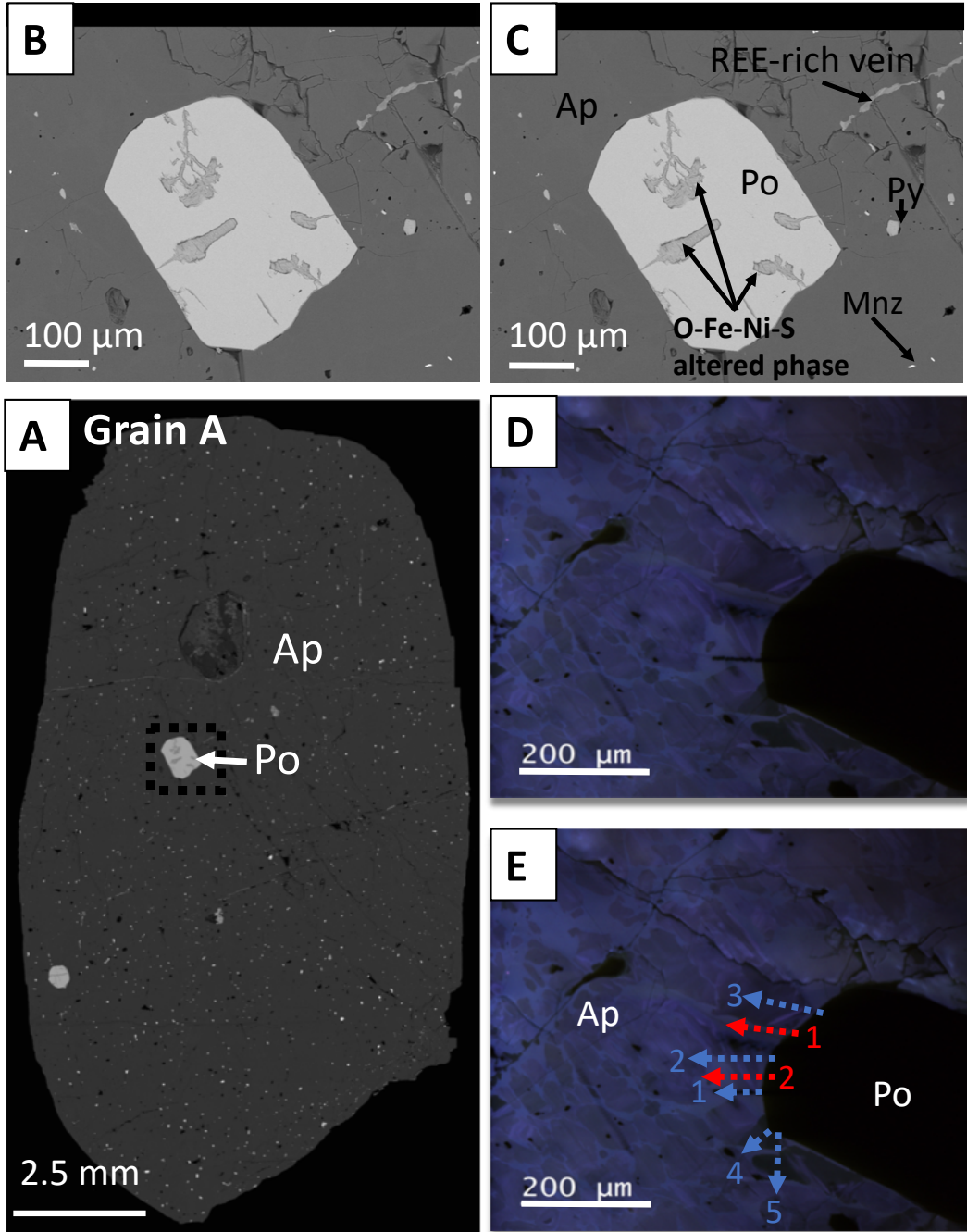


Fig. 3

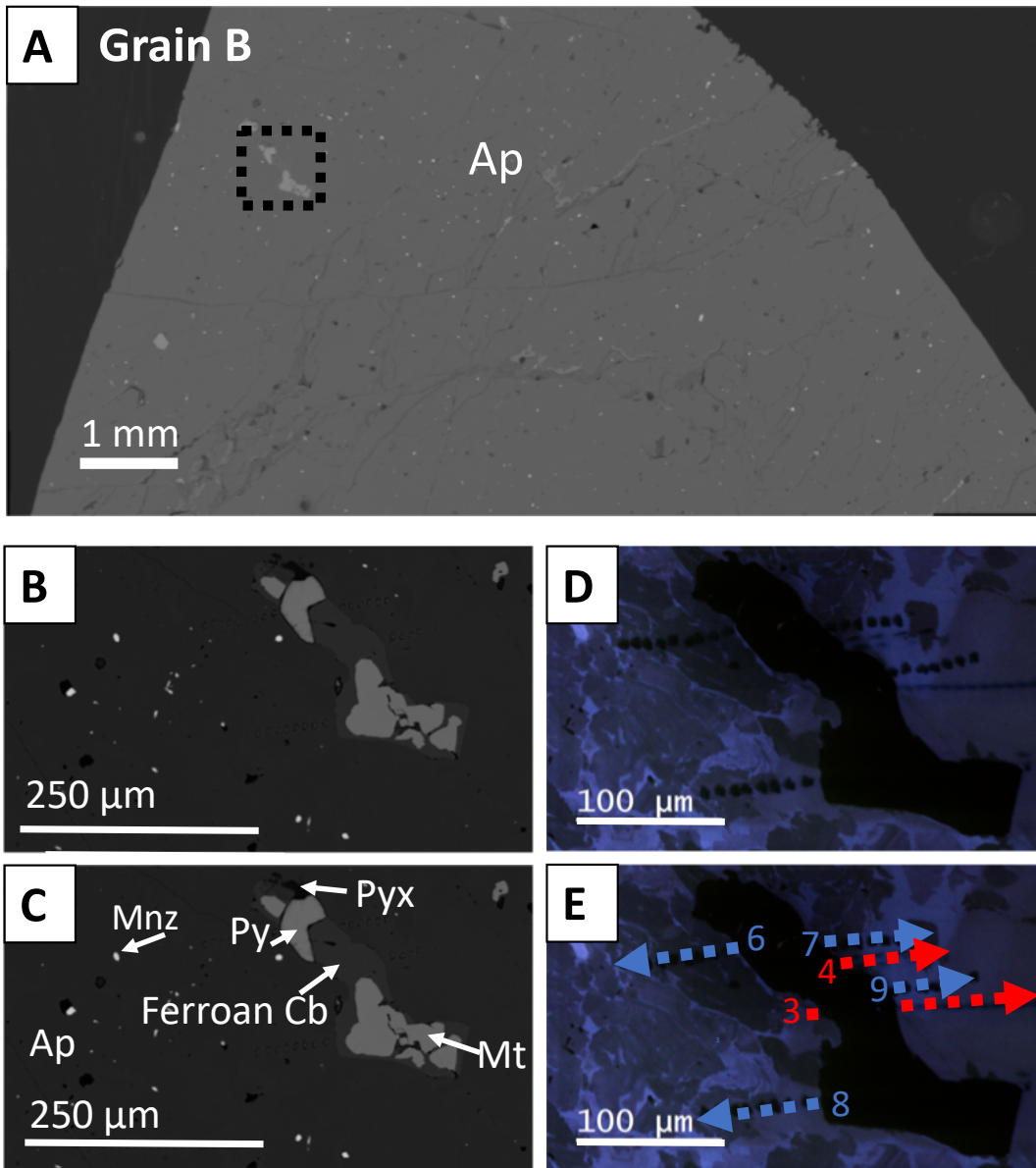


Fig. 4



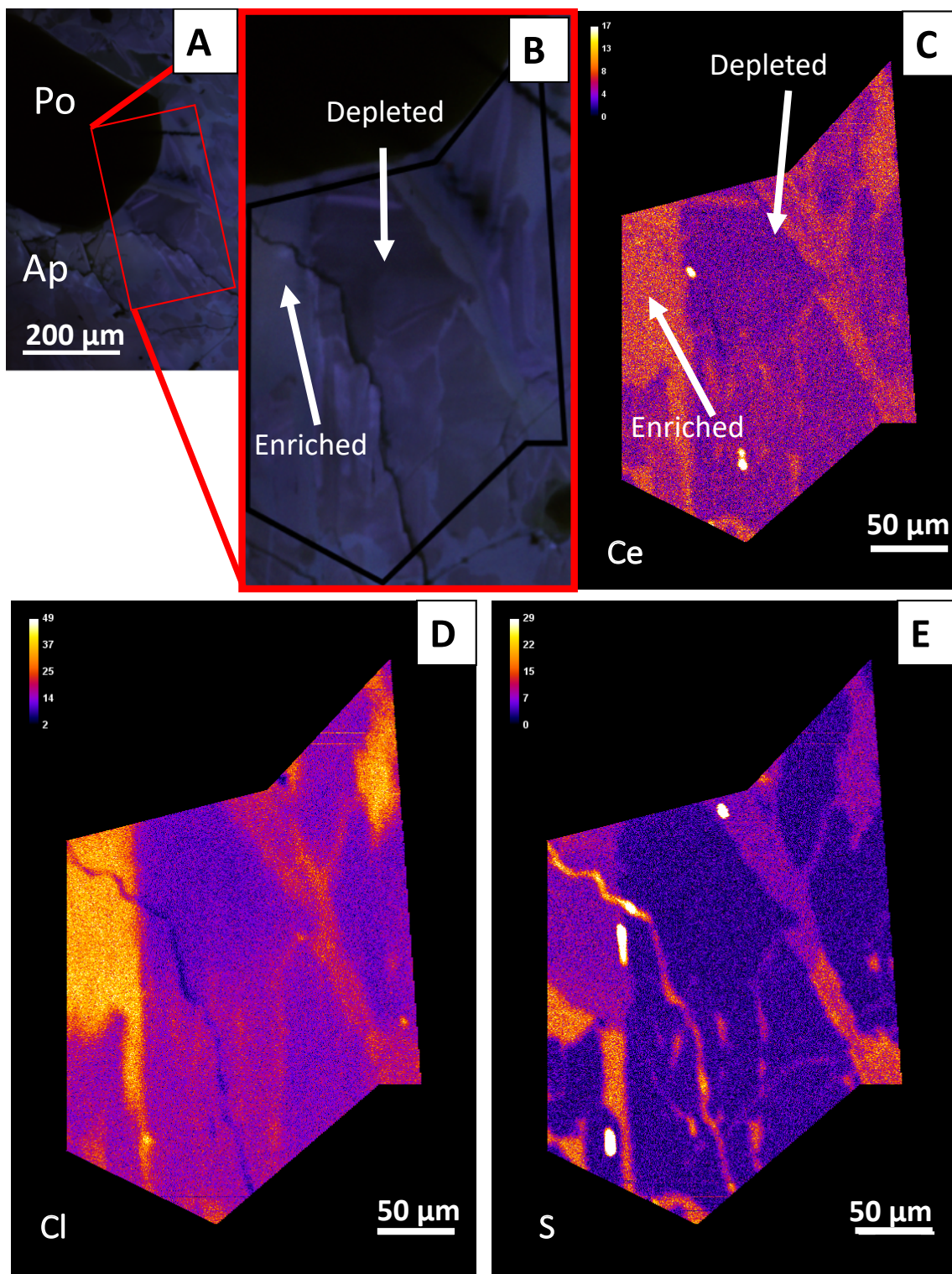


Fig. 5

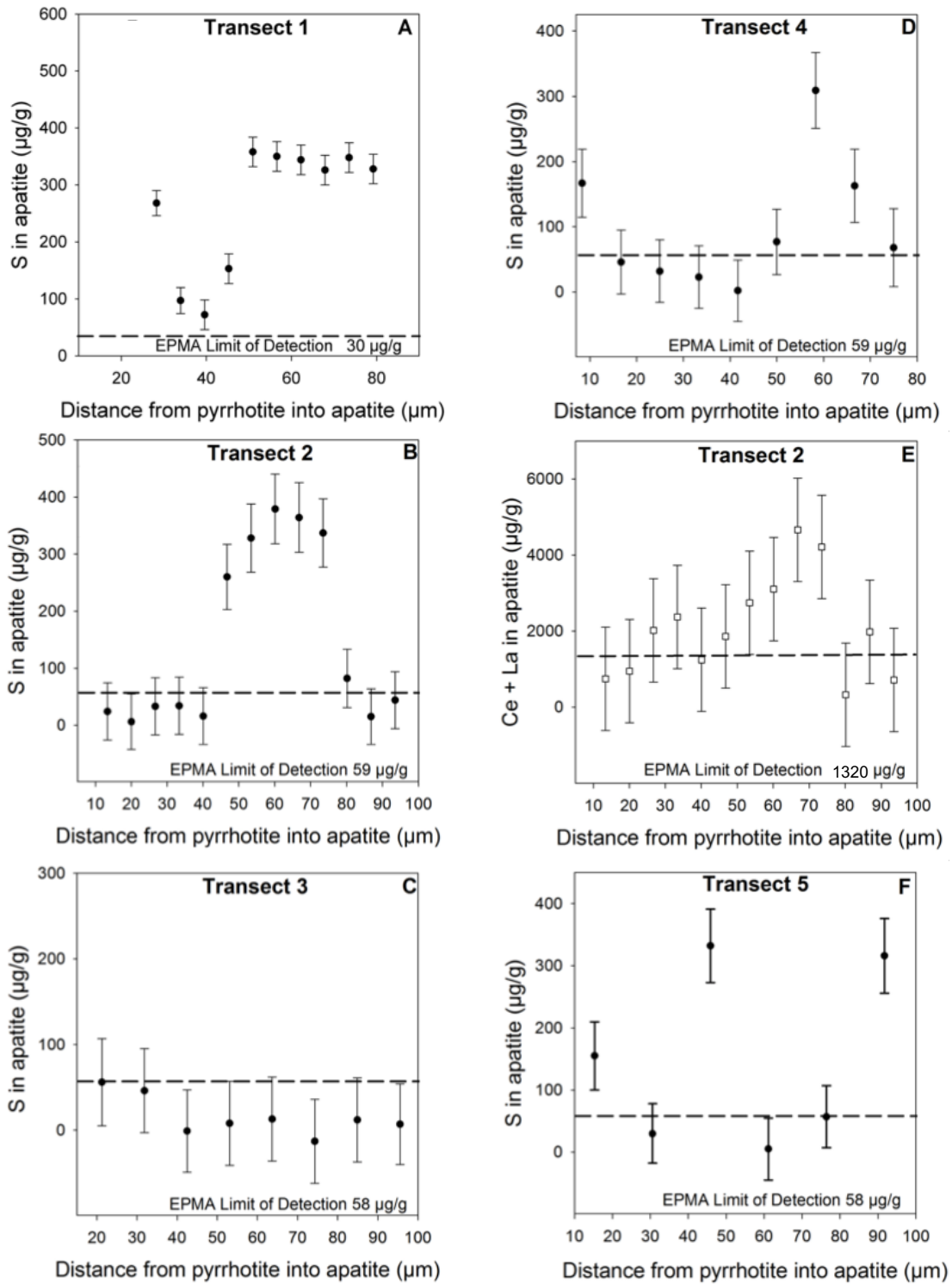


Fig. 6

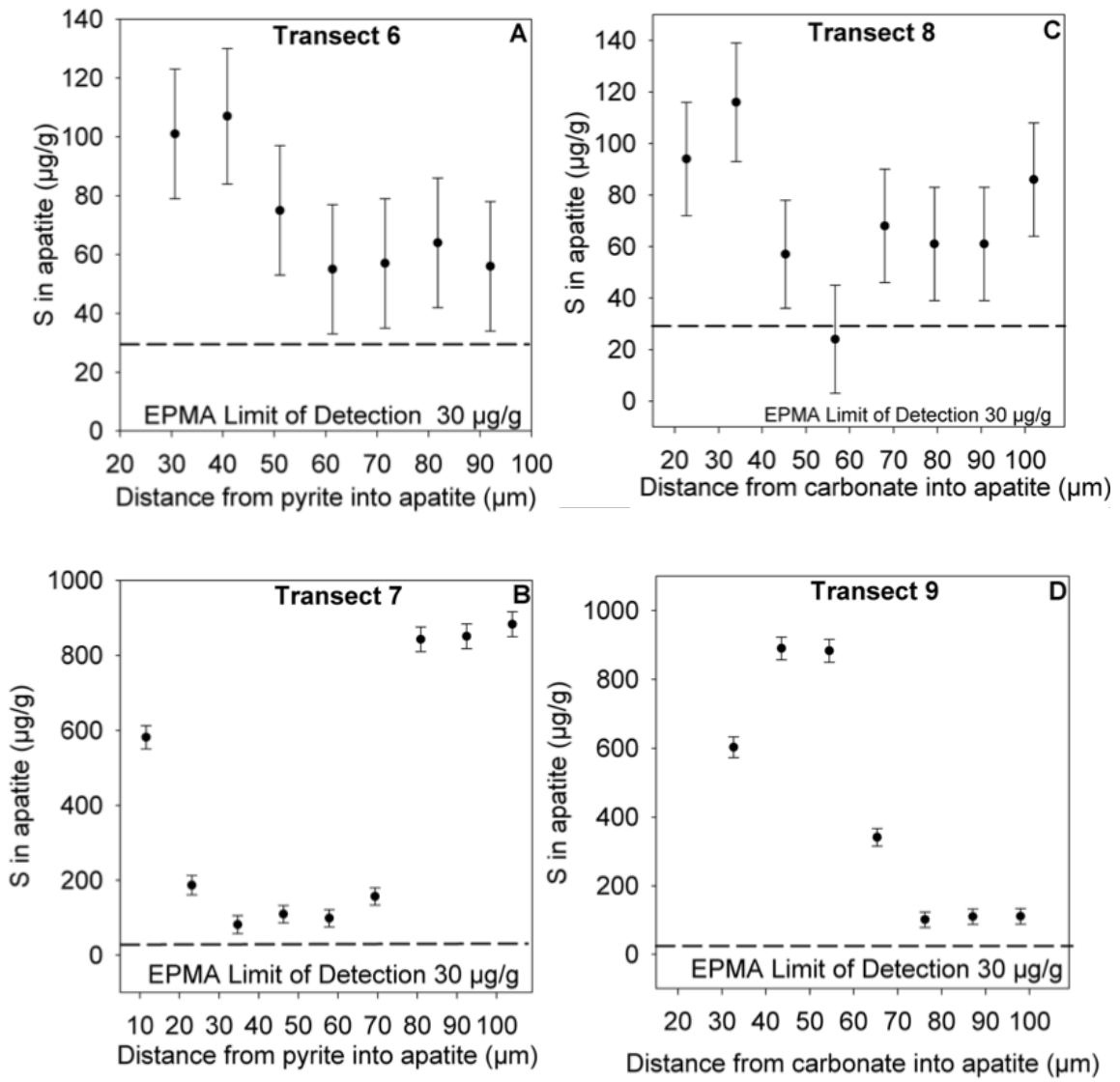


Fig. 7

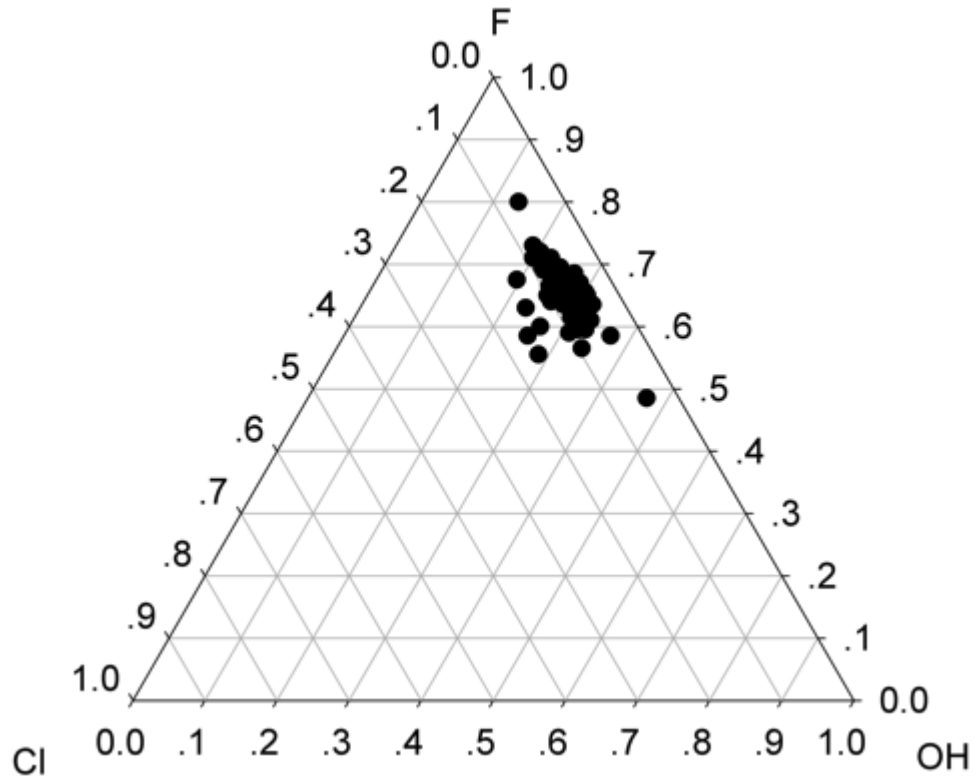


Fig. 8

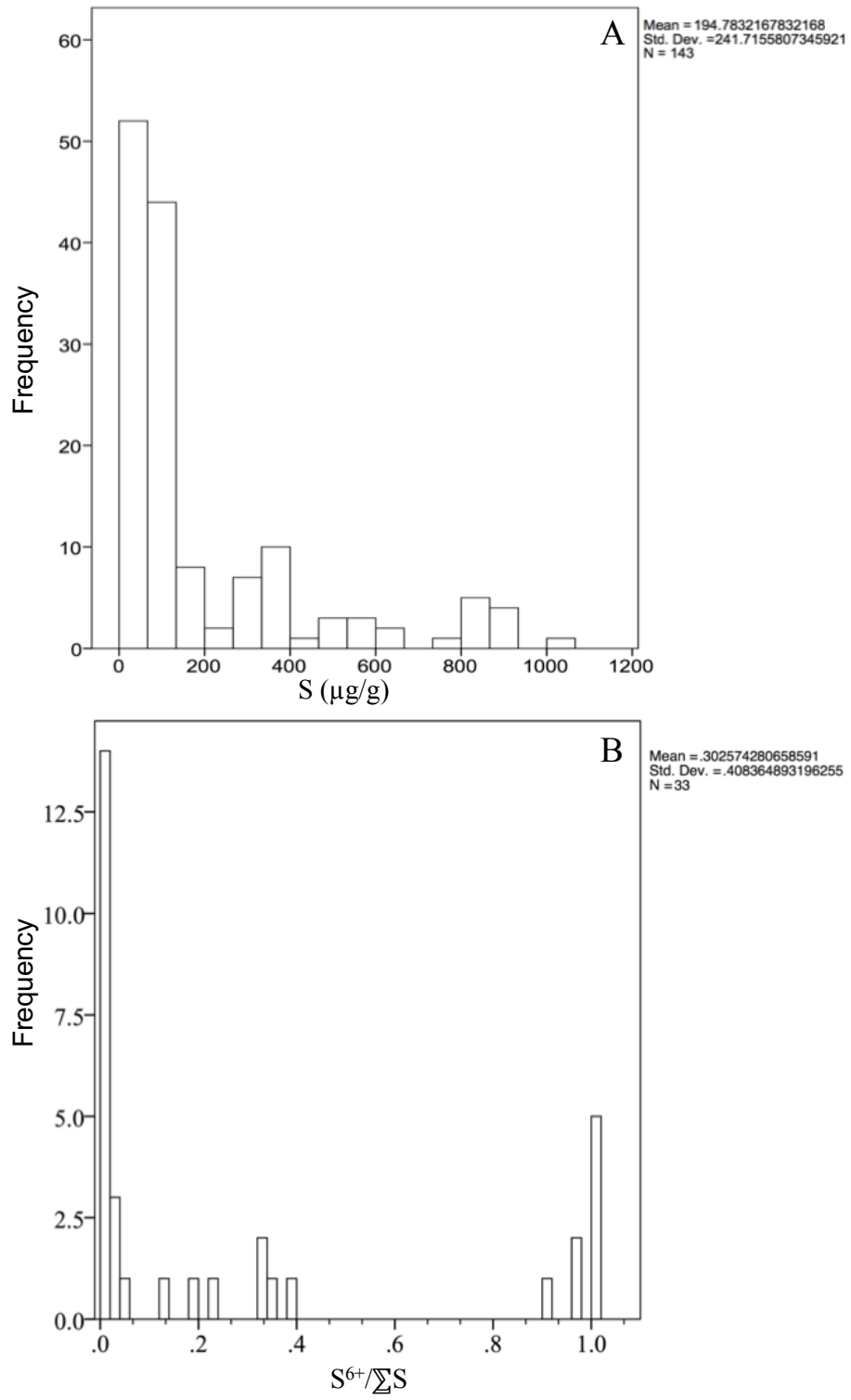
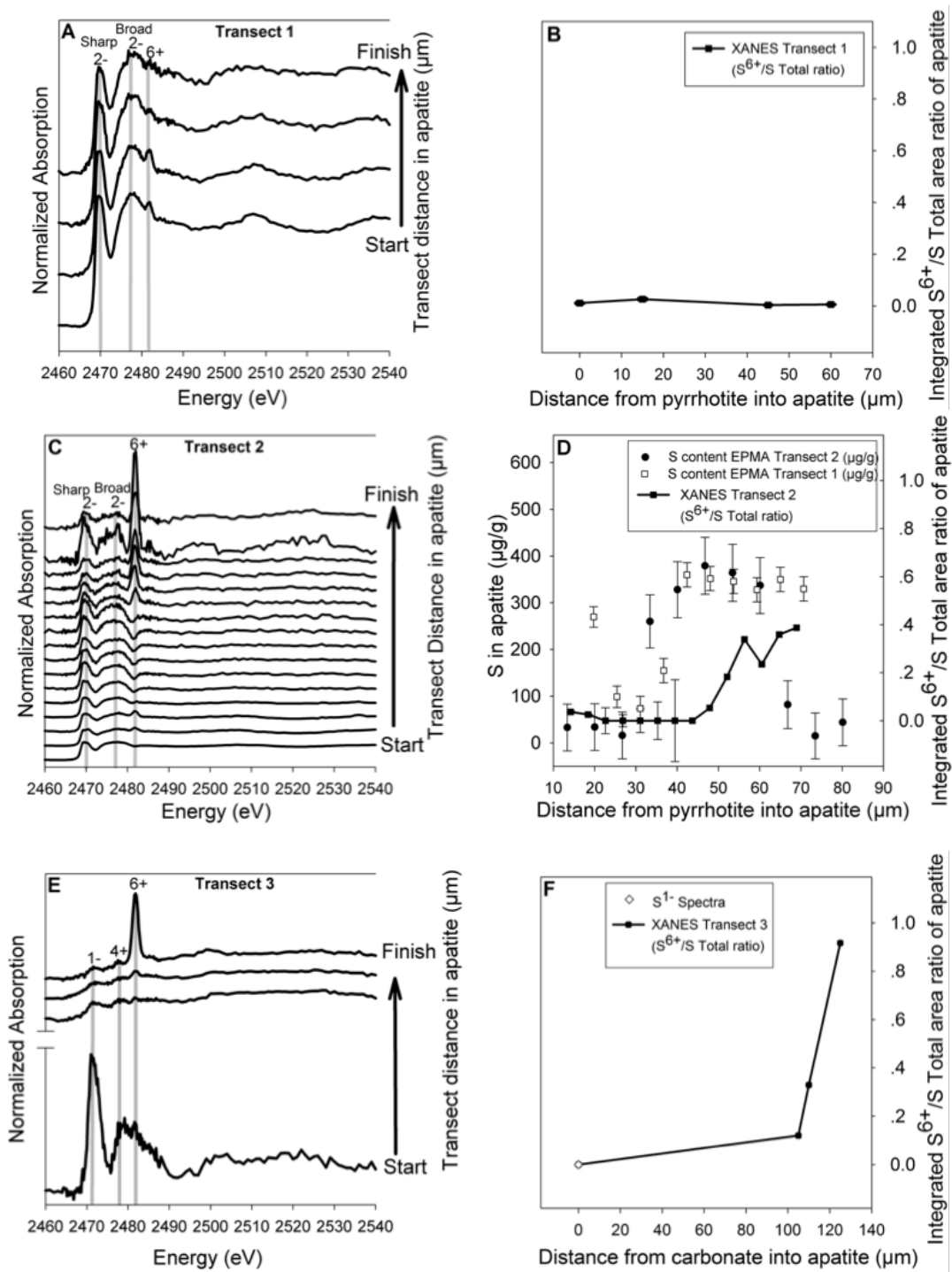


Fig. 9



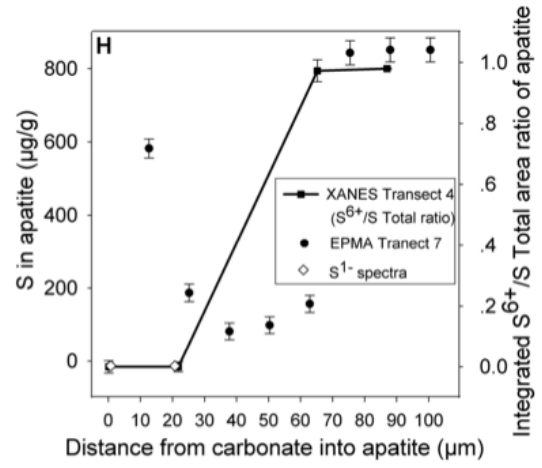
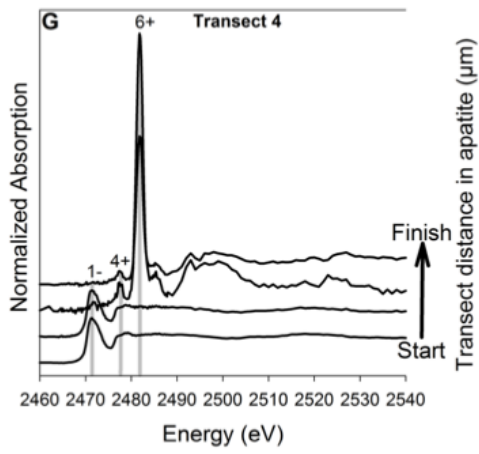


Fig. 10

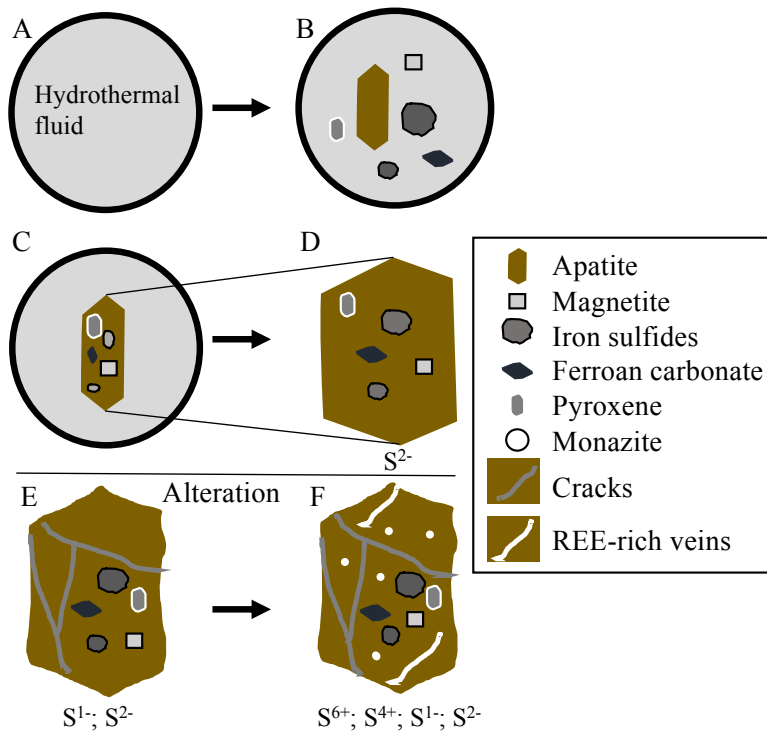


Fig. 11



## **Supplementary:**

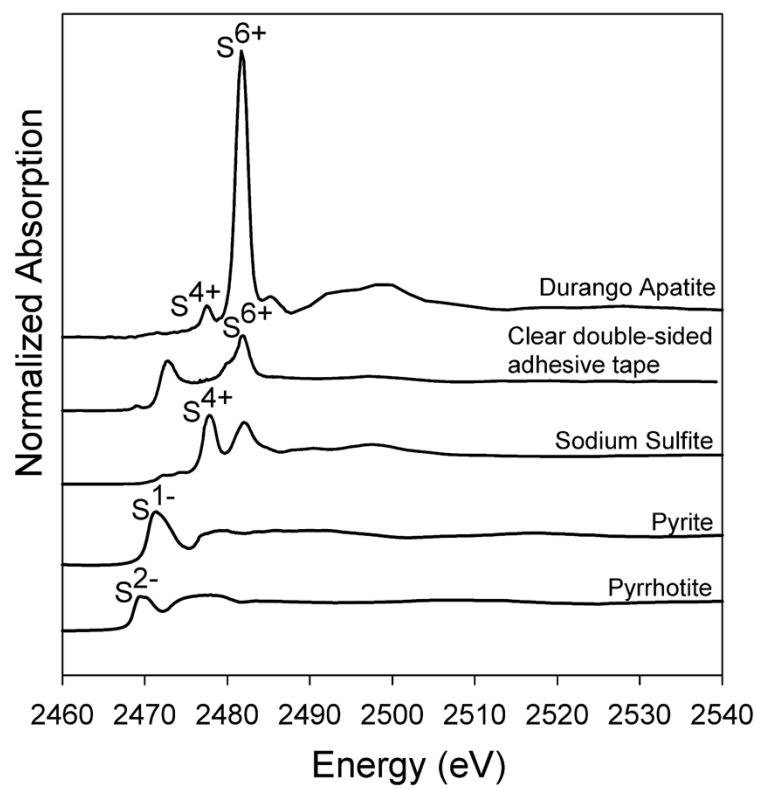
**S1.** Compilation of S *K*-edge XANES spectra of S-bearing reference materials with varying S oxidation states in apatite (from S<sup>2-</sup> to S<sup>6+</sup>).

**S2.** Additional BSE images show apatite A and apatite B with affiliated EPMA transects locations (A1 and B1) represented in white dotted arrows (Supplementary Data Table S2).

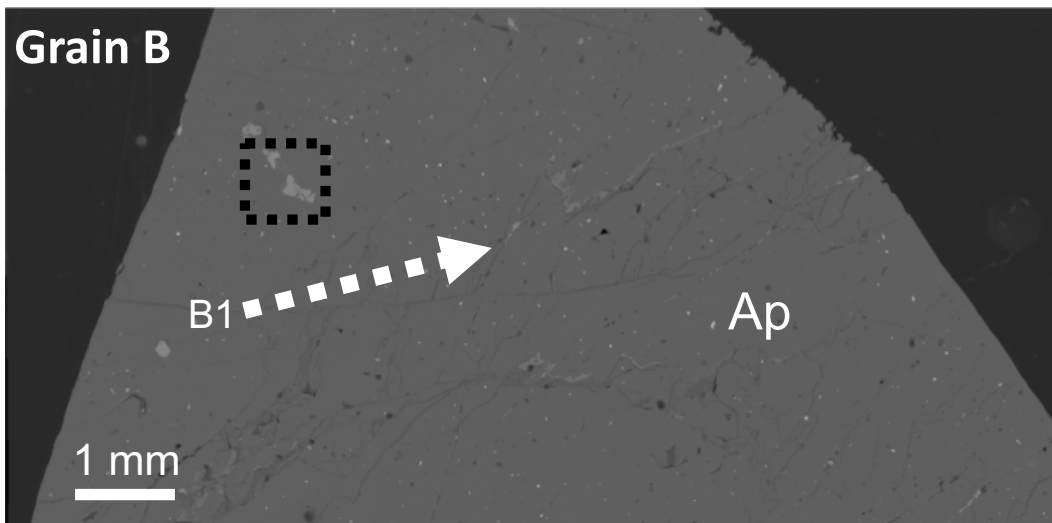
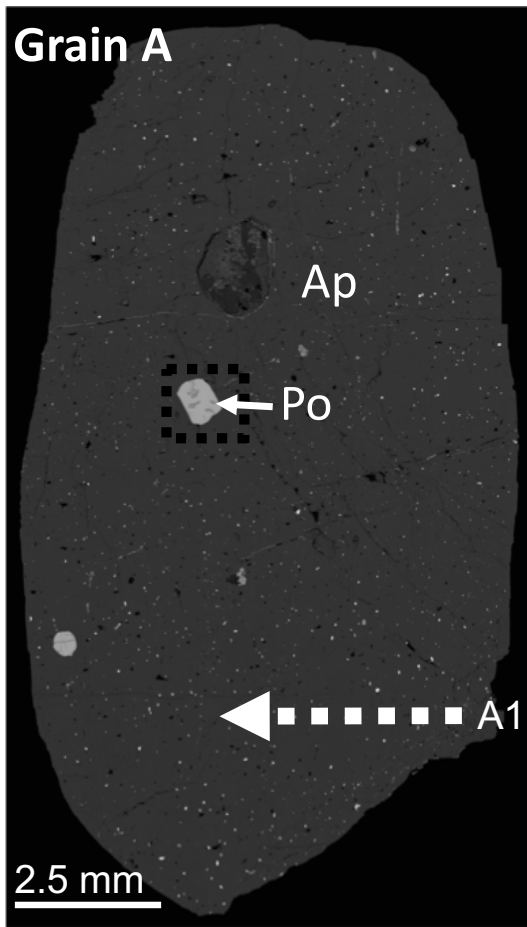
**S3.** Additional BSE images of grain A and B. **A.** BSE image of the large pyrrhotite inclusion in grain A (Supplementary Data Table S2). EPMA points (in red) within the Fe - Ni - O - S altered phase and line transects (33-34) within the pyrrhotite matrix. **B.** The BSE image of the multi-phase inclusion (pyrite - ferroan carbonate - pyroxene) in grain B and EPMA points (Table S2).

**S4.** Results of CASINO software Monte Carlo simulations with setting of 15 kV, FeS sample (Drouin et al. 2007). **A.**  $\Phi(\rho Z)$  (ionization distribution function) curve of FeS sample simulated at 15 kV. In terms of depth, there is no contribution to the overall characteristic S X-ray measurement from below 1500 nm. **B.** X-ray intensity as a function of radial distance (nm) from electron beam, simulated at 15 kV. Laterally, there is ~0 contribution to the overall X-ray measurement from outside 500nm from the center of the beam, with the most significant contribution from within ~250 nm. Sulfur X-rays that are generated by the beam are coming from not farther than 250-500 nm from the center of the beam, and not deeper than 1000-1500 nm in the sample.

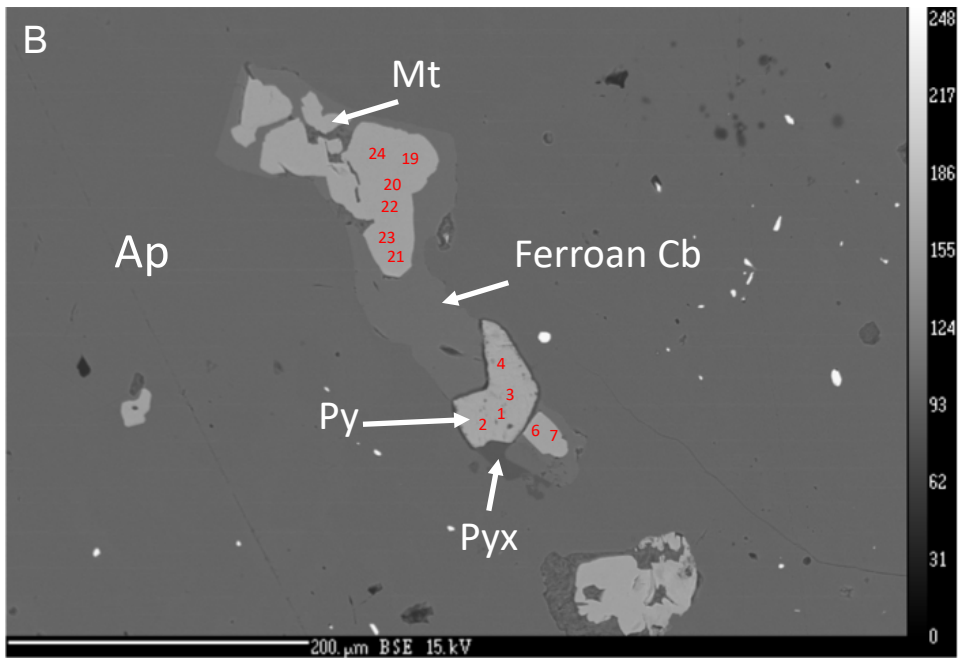
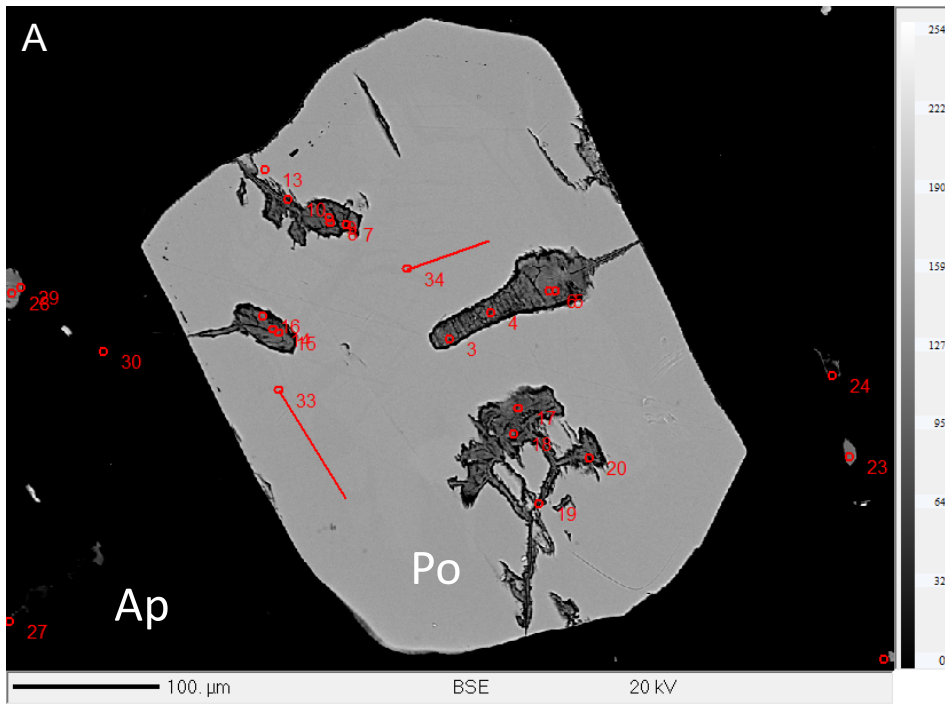
**S5.** Unnormalized S XANES spectra. **A, B.** Pyrrhotite and Pyrite intensity (raw x-ray counts) are orders of magnitude higher than the S in apatite intensity, where intensity is related to S concentration. This change in intensity further supports the location of the analysis within the apatite.



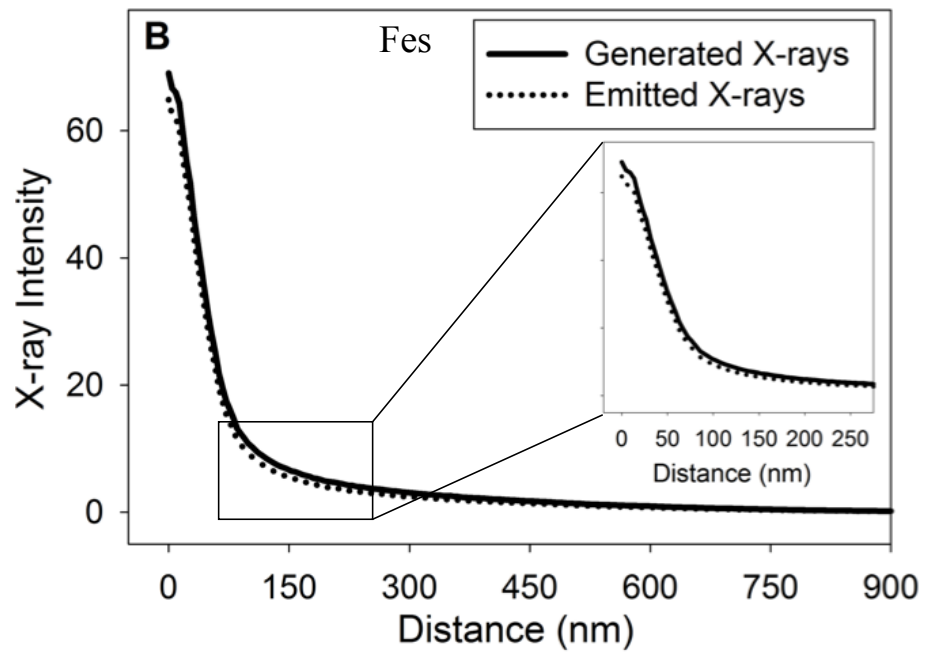
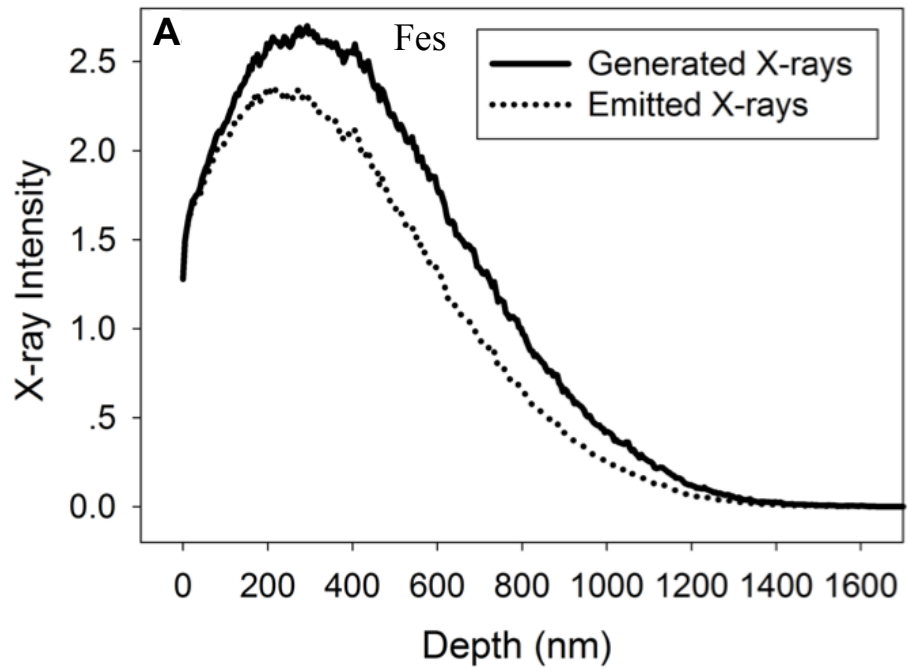
S1.



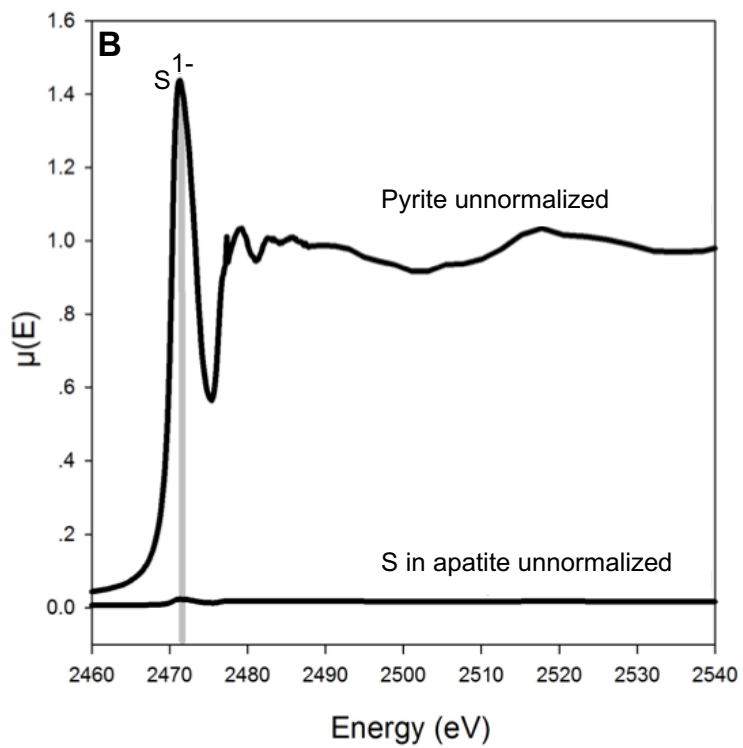
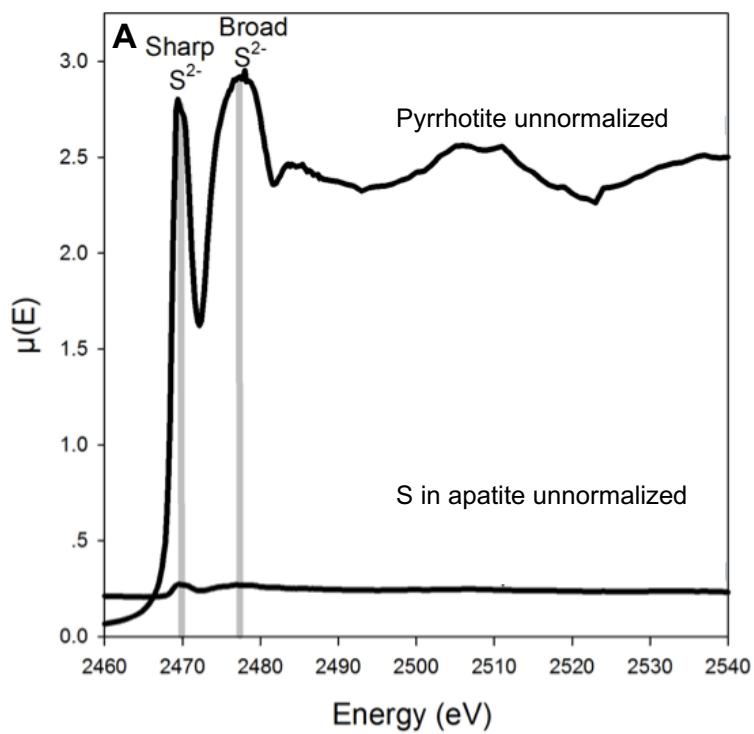
S2.



S3.



S4.



S5.

